E.H.C.

BOSTON
MEDICAL LIBRARY
8 THE FENWAY.

Engd by E.B. Hall & Son, New York.

Robt. Treat Paine

PROCEEDINGS

OF THE

NATIONAL CONFERENCE

OF

CHARITIES AND CORRECTION

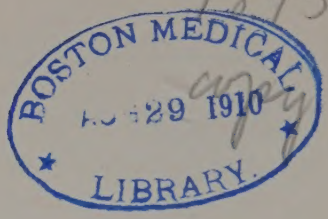
AT THE

TWENTY-SECOND ANNUAL SESSION HELD IN NEW HAVEN, CONN.
MAY 24–30, 1895

EDITED BY
ISABEL C. BARROWS
Official Reporter of the Conference

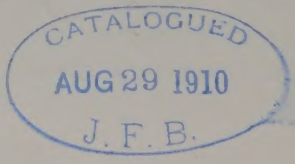
BOSTON
PRESS OF GEO. H. ELLIS, 141 FRANKLIN STREET
1895

HV
85
N3c
1895
copy 1



NOTE.

This report (and those of former years not out of print) may be ordered of the Treasurer, John M. Glenn, Baltimore, Md. Price per copy, $1.50, with discounts as follows: ten copies and less than fifty, ten per cent.; fifty copies and less than two hundred, twenty-five per cent.; two hundred copies or over, forty per cent.



PREFACE.

The twenty-second session of the National Conference of Charities and Correction was held in New Haven, Conn., May 24–30, 1895. As was anticipated, much time was given to the science of sociology; and several professors from various colleges and universities read papers or took part in the discussions. The chapter including these papers is one of the longest as well as one of the most valuable in the book. Special attention was given to "Public and Private Relief" and the kindred topic of "Charity Organization." A paper on "The Colored Insane" was the first that has been presented to the Conference on that subject. Seven brief papers on nursing and nurses, by as many trained nurses, were well received. "The Tramp Problem" was admirably treated, and two papers on "Soldiers' Homes" opened a new and important field for study and discussion.

The section meetings were well organized, and many carefully prepared papers were read. The limits of this volume have made it impossible to include these in full. The chairman of the Committee on Child-saving resigned the space for his own address, that abstracts of some of the papers presented by his committee might appear. No reports and no papers were received from any other section save that on Charity Organization. The section meetings of that committee were phonographically reported; but, with the exception of abstracts of a few papers and extracts from the discussions, this report was with great regret necessarily omitted. The *Charities' Review* for June, 1895, however, prints the greater

part of this matter, so that it is accessible to students of that branch.

Forty-two pages are devoted to tables containing a directory of the State charitable and correctional institutions, prepared by Mr. George C. Cowie, of Minnesota. This is supposed to be the most complete list of State institutions ever made in this country. The General Secretary, Mr. H. H. Hart, asks to have any mistakes or changes reported to him (see page 397).

The names of officers of State Boards were corrected up to November 1, and the list includes all of the State Boards in the country.

The next meeting of the Conference will be held in Grand Rapids, Mich., in June, 1896, Mr. A. O. Wright, of Madison, Wis., President.

Boston, Mass., Nov. 15, 1895.

TABLE OF CONTENTS.

PORTRAIT OF PRESIDENT.

PREFACE iii

TABLE OF CONTENTS v

ORGANIZATION FOR 1896 ix

I. PRESIDENT'S ADDRESS.

"The Empire of Charity," by ROBERT TREAT PAINE 1

II. CONFERENCE SERMON.

"The Development of Ethical Forces," by Rev. T. T. MUNGER 16

III. STATE BOARDS OF PUBLIC CHARITIES.

"Ideal Public Charity," by FREDERICK HOWARD WINES . . 28

"Boards of Control," by CLARENCE SNYDER 37

IV. PUBLIC AND PRIVATE RELIEF.

"Poverty and its Relief. Methods Possible in the City of New York," by Mrs. C. R. LOWELL 44

"The Best Method of Relief in Small Cities," by Rev. JOHN C. BROOKS 54

"Outdoor Public Relief in Massachusetts," by THOMAS F. RING 61

"Public and Private Relief in Chicago," by Rev. C. G. TRUSDELL 66

"The German 'Inner Mission,'" by Prof. C. R. HENDERSON 72

V. CHARITY ORGANIZATION.

"The Charity Organization Movement: Its Tendency and its Duty," by JEFFREY R. BRACKETT, Ph.D. 80

"Continued Care of Families," by FRANCES A. SMITH . . . 87

"The Louisville Charity Organization Society and its Work," by W. T. ROLPH 93

"Is Emergency Relief by Work Wise?" by PHILIP W. AYRES 96

"The Permanent Improvement of Neighborhoods," by CLARE DE GRAFFENRIED 101

VI. SOCIOLOGY IN INSTITUTIONS OF LEARNING.

"Is the Term 'Social Classes' a Scientific Category?" by FRANKLIN H. GIDDINGS, M.A. 110

"Science and Sentiment in Economic Policy," by Prof. Arthur T. Hadley 117
"Sociology in Schools and Colleges: Its Feasibility and Probable Results," by Prof. H. H. Powers 122
"The Statistical Study of Hereditary Criminality," by Prof. E. R. L. Gould 134
"The Relation of Universities to Charity and to Reformatory Work," by Prof. William H. Brewer 143

VII. The Feeble-minded.

"The Feeble-minded," by George H. Knight, M.D. . . . 150
"The Training of an Idiotic Hand," by Samuel J. Fort, M.D. 155
"The Protection and Training of Feeble-minded Women," by C. W. Winspear 160

VIII. The Insane.

"The Colored Insane," by J. W. Babcock, M.D. 164
"The Increase of Insanity," by F. B. Sanborn 186

IX. Child-saving Work.

"Trade Schools: Their Place in Industry, Education, and Philanthropy," by Prof. C. R. Richards 195
"Problems of an Institution: Scraps of Experience," by Walter A. Wheeler 204
"State Supervision of Child-caring Agencies," by Homer Folks 209
"The Problems of Child-saving in New York City," by Charles Loring Brace 212
"Desertion by Parents," by Rev. E. P. Savage 213

X. Juvenile Reformation.

"The Influence of Children in their Homes after Institution Life," by F. H. Nibecker 216
"Remedial Work in Behalf of our Youth," by Rev. M. McG. Dana 230
"Obligations of the State to Juvenile Delinquents," by W. G. Fairbanks 238

XI. Immigration and Interstate Migration.

"Immigration," by Dr. C. S. Hoyt 245
"Interstate Migration," by H. H. Hart 248

XII. Training Schools for Nurses.

"The Moral Influence of Trained Nurses in Hospitals," by Linda Richards 256

"The Trained Nurse," by SOPHIA F. PALMER 259
"Nurses in Settlement Work," by LILLIAN D. WALD . . . 264
"Blackwell's Island Hospitals," by LOUISE DARCHE 267
"A Floating Hospital," by MARIA S. ROBINSON 269
"District Nursing in London," by DIANA C. KIMBER 273
"Children in Hospitals," by L. W. QUINTARD 275
"A Plea for Trained Nurses for Almshouse Hospitals," by Dr. G. H. M. ROWE 276

XIII. MEDICAL CHARITY.

"Provident Medical Associations," by W. H. PRESCOTT, M.D. 285

XIV THE TRAMP PROBLEM.

"The Tramp Problem: What it is, and What to do with it," by J. J. MCCOOK 288

XV. SOLDIERS' HOMES.

"Pensions and Soldiers' Homes," by A. O. WRIGHT 303
"Homes for Soldiers and Sailors," Report of Committee . . . 310

XVI. REPORTS FROM STATES.

Alabama 319
Alaska 321
Arizona 322
Arkansas 323
California 324
Colorado 326
Connecticut 328
Delaware 330
District of Columbia 333
Florida, Georgia 340
Idaho, Illinois 341
Indiana 343
Indian Territory 346
Iowa 347
Kansas 348
Kentucky, Louisiana 349
Maine 350
Maryland 352
Massachusetts 354
Michigan 355
Minnesota 357
Mississippi 358
Missouri 359
Montana 361
Nebraska 362

Nevada, New Hampshire 365
New Jersey 367
New Mexico, New York 369
North Carolina 375
North Dakota, Ohio 376
Oklahoma, Oregon 378
Pennsylvania 379
Rhode Island, South Carolina 381
South Dakota, Tennessee 382
Texas 383
Utah, Vermont 384
Virginia 385
Washington, West Virginia 390
Wisconsin 391
Wyoming, Ontario 393
TABLES RELATING TO STATE INSTITUTIONS 397

XVII. MINUTES AND DISCUSSIONS.

Secretary's Report 440

XVIII. SECTION MEETINGS.

"Evils growing out of Extortionate Usury," by JOSEPH LEE . 506
"Sanitary Oversight of Dwellings," by MARION I. MOORE . . 508
"Improved Dwellings," by E. R. L. GOULD 511
"Married Vagabonds," by MARY E. RICHMOND 514
Remarks by G. W. SWAN 519
"The Beauty of Service," by Mrs. ALICE N. LINCOLN . . . 520
Remarks by Judge WAYLAND 521
"Personal Service on the Part of Directors," by ALEXANDER JOHNSON 525
"Friendly Visiting," by Judge WAYLAND 526
Remarks by ROBERT TREAT PAINE 528
Remarks by Dr. JAMES WALK 529

TREASURER'S STATEMENT 531
LIST OF MEMBERS 533
ORGANIZATION OF CONFERENCE OF 1895 549
OFFICERS AND MEMBERS OF STATE BOARDS 552
INDEX OF SPEAKERS AND WRITERS 555
INDEX OF SUBJECTS 556

ORGANIZATION OF CONFERENCE OF 1896.

President.

A. O. WRIGHT, of Wisconsin.

Vice-Presidents.

PROF FRANCIS WAYLAND, New Haven, Ct.
MRS. C. R. LOWELL, New York, N.Y.
LEVI L. BARBOUR, Detroit, Mich.
ARCHB. JOHN IRELAND, St. Paul, Minn.
PRES. D. C. GILMAN, Baltimore, Md.

General Secretary.

H. H. HART, St. Paul, Minn.

Secretaries.

ERNEST BICKNELL, Indianapolis, Ind.
J. J. KELSO, Toronto, Can.
JOHN H. GABRIEL, Denver, Col.
W. T. ROLPH, Louisville, Ky.
JOSEPH P. BYERS, Columbus, Ohio.
MRS. FRED C. LEE, Dowagiac, Mich.
REV. LUTHER P. LUDDEN, Lincoln, Neb.

Treasurer.

JOHN M. GLENN, Baltimore, Md.

Executive Committee.

A. O. WRIGHT, Madison, Wis.
A. E. ELMORE, Fort Howard, Wis.
JOHN GLENN, Baltimore, Md.
FRED. H. WINES, Springfield, Ill.
JOHN R. ELDER, Indianapolis, Ind.
PHILIP C. GARRETT, Philadelphia, Pa.
CLARENCE SNYDER, Ashland, Wis.
W. P. LETCHWORTH, Buffalo, N.Y.
J. WARNER MILLS, Denver, Col.
WM. HOWARD NEFF, Cincinnati, Ohio.
GEO. H. KNIGHT, M.D., Lakeville, Ct.
CHARLES S. HOYT, Albany, N.Y.
J. T. MALLALIEU, Kearney, Neb
RT. REV. G. D. GILLESPIE, Grand Rapids, Mich.
N. S. ROSENAU, New York, N.Y.
REV. MYRON W. REED, Denver, Col.
ROELIFF BRINKERHOFF, Mansfield, Ohio.
H. H. HART, St. Paul, Minn.
F. B. SANBORN, Concord, Mass.
L. C. STORRS, Lansing, Mich.
ROBERT TREAT PAINE, Boston, Mass.

Official Reporter and Editor.

MRS. ISABEL C. BARROWS, 141 Franklin Street, Boston, Mass.

State Corresponding Secretaries.

Alabama	Miss Julia S. Tutwiler, Livingston.
Alaska	Rev. Sheldon Jackson, Washington, D.C.
Arizona	Dr. J. B. Hamblin, Phœnix.
Arkansas	Rev. D. W. Comstock, Little Rock.
California	Mrs. Sarah B. Cooper, 1902 Vallejo Street, San Francisco.
Colorado	John H. Gabriel, Denver.
Connecticut	Prof. John J. McCook, Hartford.
Delaware	Mrs. Emalea Warner, Wilmington.
District of Columbia	Henry B. F. Macfarland, Washington.
Florida	Laury C. Perkins, Tallahassee.
Georgia	Miss Alice Boykin, Antioch.
Idaho	Dr. John W. Givens, Blackfoot.
Illinois	Miss Julia C. Lathrop, Hull House, Chicago.
Indiana	Ernest Bicknell, Indianapolis.
Indian Territory	R. W. Hill, D.D., Muskogee.
Iowa	Mrs. Nettie F. Howard, Davenport.
Kansas	George C. Clark, Junction City.
Kentucky	W. T. Rolph, Louisville.
Louisiana	Michel Heymann, New Orleans.
Maine	Mrs. L. M. N. Stevens, Portland.
Maryland	Miss Kate M. McLane, 1101 N. Charles Street, Baltimore.
Massachusetts	Col. Henry Stone, Boston.
Michigan	Dr. James A. Post, Detroit.
Minnesota	Prof. W. W. Folwell, Minneapolis.
Mississippi	Col. J. L. Power, Jackson.
Missouri	Rev. Thos. M. Finney, D.D., 1117 Locus Street, St. Louis.
Montana	Mrs. Laura E. Howey, Helena.
Nebraska	Rev. A. W. Clark, 1307 Douglas Street, Omaha.
Nevada	
New Hampshire	
New Jersey	Mrs. E. E. Williamson, Elizabeth.
New Mexico	Rev. Albert B. Cristy, Albuquerque.
New York	Homer Folks, 105 E. 22d Street, New York.
North Carolina	C. B. Denson, Raleigh.
North Dakota	Mrs. J. G. Hamilton, Grand Forks.
Ohio	Joseph P. Byers, Columbus.
Oklahoma	John Golobie, Guthrie.
Oregon	W. R. Walpole, 213 4th Street, Portland.
Pennsylvania	Dr. James W. Walk, Philadelphia.
Rhode Island	Rev. James H. Nutting, Howard.
South Carolina	Dr. J. W. Babcock, Columbia.
South Dakota	W. B. Sherrard, Sioux Falls.
Tennessee	W. D. Cardwell, Memphis.
Texas	
Utah	Mrs. Cornelia G. Paddock, Salt Lake City.
Vermont	
Virginia	R. O. Gilliam, Petersburg.
Washington	Thos. P. Westendorf, Chehalis.
West Virginia	Prof. Thomas C. Miller, Fairmont.
Wisconsin	Gustav Frellson, 416 Milwaukee Street, Milwaukee.
Wyoming	Miss Estelle Reel, Cheyenne.
Ontario	Dr. A. M. Rosebrugh, 137 Church Street, Toronto.
Manitoba and W. Canada	Dr. David Young, Selkirk.

STANDING COMMITTEES

On Reports from States.

H. H. Hart, *ex officio*.....St. Paul, Minn.
F. B. Sanborn.....Concord, Mass.
R. O. Gilliam.....Petersburg, Va.

On Charity Organization.

Philip W. Ayres.....Cincinnati, Ohio
Miss M. L. Birtwell.....Cambridge, Mass.
Rev. G. B. Safford, D.D.....Brooklyn, N.Y.
S. O. Preston.....New Haven, Conn.
Miss M. E. Richmond.....Baltimore, Md.
Dr. J. A. Post.....Detroit, Mich.
A. G. Warner.....Palo Alto, Cal.
J. F. Jackson.....St. Paul, Minn.
Mrs. E. E. Ankeny.....Des Moines, Ia.
Frederick Almy.....Buffalo, N.Y.
Joshua L. Baily.....Philadelphia, Pa.
W. T. Rolph.....Louisville, Ky.
Mrs. Izetta George.....Denver, Col.
W. D. Cardwell.....Memphis, Tenn.

On Child Saving.

H. W. Lewis.....Washington, D.C.
J. J. Kelso.....Toronto, Can.
Homer Folks.....New York, N.Y.
James Smith.....Cincinnati, Ohio
C. D. Randall.....Coldwater, Mich.
Mrs. James C. Biddle.....Philadelphia, Pa.
C. W. Birtwell.....Boston, Mass.
G. A. Merrill.....Owatonna, Minn.
S. C. Griffin.....Coldwater, Mich.
Miss F. L. Patton.....Asheville, N.C.

On Social Settlements in Cities.

Miss Julia C. Lathrop.....Chicago, Ill.
R. A. Woods.....Boston, Mass.
James B. Reynolds.....New York, N.Y.
Wm. Langstrom.....Philadelphia, Pa.
Rev. Graham Taylor, D.D.....Chicago, Ill.
Miss McLean.....San Francisco, Cal.
Miss Kate A. Everest.....Pittsburg, Pa.

On Juvenile Reformatories.

Frank H. Briggs.....Rochester, N.Y.
J. E. St. John.....Lansing, Mich.
Miss Sarah F. Keely.....Indianapolis, Ind.
F. H. Nibecker.....Glen Mills, Pa.
Mrs. Mary E. Cobb.....Philadelphia, Pa.
E. Carl Bank.....Ione, Cal.
H. E. Haines.....Marshalltown, Del.
Mrs. Lucy M. Sickels.....Adrian, Mich.
C. J. Atkinson.....Toronto, Can.
Rev. T. F. Slattery.....Lansing, Mich.

On the Care of the Chronic Insane Poor.

Dr. Samuel Bell.....Detroit, Mich.
Z. K. Pangborn.....Jersey City, N.J.
Dr. J. L. Hildreth.....Cambridge, Mass.
Dr. Mary A. Spink.....Indianapolis, Ind.
Dr. Boerne Bettman.....Chicago, Ill.
Dr. George H. Rohe.....Catonsville, Md.
H. C. Filler.....Columbus, Ohio.
Dr. W. A. Gordon.....Winnebago, Wis.
J. E. Heg.....Lake Geneva, Wis.

On the Care of the Feeble-minded.

Alexander Johnson.....Fort Wayne, Ind.
Dr. F. M. Powell.....Glenwood, Ia.
Dr. A. C. Rogers.....Faribault, Minn.
Dr. W. B. Fish.....Wheaton, Ill.
Dr. George H. Knight.....Lakeville, Conn.
Mrs. Kate Gannett Wells.....Boston, Mass.
Hans B. Warner.....Ellsworth, Wis.
Miss Mattie Gundry.....Falls Church, Va.
Dr. Mary J. Dunlap.....Vineland, N.J.

On the Scientific Study of Social Problems.

Rev. S. G. Smith, D.D.....University of Minnesota, St. Paul
President J. D. Angell.....University of Michigan, Ann Arbor
President W. F. Slocum, D.D.....Colorado College, Colorado Springs
Prof. H. W. Farnam.....Yale University, New Haven
Prof. F. H. Giddings.....Columbia College, New York
J. G. Brooks.....Cambridge, Mass.
Prof. S. N. Patten.....University of Pennsylvania
Prof. R. T. Ely.....University of Wisconsin, Madison
Prof. P. M. Wise.....University of Vermont
Prof. James H. Dillard.....Tulane University, New Orleans
Rev. F. H. Wines, LL.D.....Springfield, Ill.

On Municipal and County Public Charities.

J. H. Stout.....Menomonie, Wis.
Mrs. E. E. Williamson.....Elizabeth, N J.
Dr. Charles S. Hoyt.....Albany, N.Y.
Robert D. McGonnigle.....Pittsburg, Pa.
Joseph P. Byers.....Columbus, Ohio
Ernest Bicknell.....Indianapolis, Ind.
Rev. Thos. M. Finney, D.D.....St. Louis, Mo.
John P. Faure.....66 3d Ave., New York
Col. John Tracey.....Washington, D.C.
Rev. Luther P. Ludden .....Lincoln, Neb.
Thos. F. Ring.....Boston, Mass.
Mrs. Mary A. T. Clark.....Wilmington, Del.
Rev. S. W. Dike.....Auburndale, Mass.
M. D. Follett .....Marietta, Ohio
Dr. J. W. Walk.....Philadelphia, Pa.
Rev. M. McG. Dana, D.D ,
42 Oxford St., Brooklyn, N.Y.

On the Merit System in Public Institutions.

Philip C. Garrett.....Philadelphia, Pa.
George W. Johnson.....Brookfield, Mass.
J. W. Patton.....Asheville, N.C.
Prof. Chas. R. Henderson.....Chicago, Ill.
Prof. J. J. Blaisdell ..... Beloit, Wis.
J. W. Babcock, M.D.....Columbia, S.C.
J. Warner Mills.....Denver, Col.
William Howard Neff.....Cincinnati, Ohio
Prof. Blackmar.....Kansas, Neb.
Frank N. Hartwell, 219 W. Main St., Louisville, Ky.

Soldiers' and Sailors' Homes.

C. E. Faulkner, *Chairman*.....Atchison, Kan.
Gen. W. W. Averell ..... Hartford, Conn.
Major R. H. Dudley.....Nashville, Tenn.
L. G. Rutherford .....Grand Rapids, Mich.
Edgar E. Clough.....Deadwood, S.D.
Major N. V. Randolph, ...Richmond, Va.
Dr. E. V. Stoddard.....Rochester, N.Y.
Col. John Tracey.....Washington, D.C.
Capt. H. A. Castle.....St. Paul, Minn.
J. H. Woodnorth.....Milwaukee, Wis.
Mrs. L. A. Bates.....Grand Island, Neb.

RULES OF PROCEDURE FOR THE NATIONAL CONFERENCE OF CHARITIES AND CORRECTION.

Preamble.

The National Conference of Charities exists to discuss the problems of charities and correction, to disseminate information and promote reforms. It does not formulate platforms.

I. Membership.

The membership of a Conference shall include: —

(*a*) All past officers of the Conference who have served more than one year.

(*b*) Members and officers of State Boards of Charities or boards of kindred functions.

(*c*) Members of Boards of Management and officers of public and private charitable and correctional institutions.

(*d*) Members and officers of boards and societies organized for the relief or improvement of the poor, the unfortunate, or the neglected.

(*e*) Persons designated by State or municipal authorities or by the Local Committee.

(*f*) Others especially interested may be enrolled as members, and may share in the discussions, without the privilege of voting.

(*g*) Honorary members may be elected on recommendation of the Executive Committee.

(*h*) The annual membership fee shall be $2, which shall entitle each member to a copy of the Proceedings and other publications of the Conference.

(*i*) State Boards of Charities and other societies and institutions subscribing for the Proceedings in quantities shall be entitled to enroll their officers and members as members of this Conference, in proportion to the amount subscribed.

(*j*) The list of annual members shall be printed in the Proceedings, with asterisks marking those in attendance.

II. Officers.

The officers of the Conference shall be a President, one or more Vice-Presidents, a General Secretary, three or more Secretaries, a Treasurer, and an Official Reporter and Editor, also a Corresponding Secretary for each State and Territory. These officers shall be elected annually by the Conference.

The ex-Presidents of the Conference shall be the Councillors, and shall be members of the Executive Committee *ex officio*.

III. Committees.

The standing committees shall be an Executive Committee and a committee on each subject which it is proposed to discuss at the ensuing Conference.

The Executive Committee shall consist of the President *ex officio*, of seven members, to be elected annually by the Conference, and of the Councillors. Six members shall constitute a quorum for the transaction of business.

The President, soon after the opening of the Conference, shall appoint a Committee on Organization of the next Conference and a Committee on Time and Place of the next meeting, each consisting of one member from each State and Territory; also a Committee on Resolutions, to which all resolutions shall be referred without debate.

IV. Duties of Officers.

The officers of the Conference shall discharge the duties usually devolving upon such officers.

The President shall be chairman *ex officio* of the Executive Committee, and shall have the supervision of the work of the several committees in preparing for the meeting of the Conference and securing a suitable attendance. He shall have authority to accept resignations and fill vacancies in the list of officers and chairmen of committees. He shall have power to fill vacancies in, and to add to the numbers of, any committee, except the Executive Committee, in consultation with the chairman of the committee.

The Executive Committee shall have power to fill vacancies in its members.

The General Secretary shall be *ex-officio* Secretary of the Executive Committee, and Chairman of the Committee on Reports from the States. He shall conduct the correspondence of the Conference with officers, committees, and others, under the direction of the President. He shall have charge of the distribution of all announcements and programmes, and shall direct the work of the Secretaries and be responsible for the correctness of the roll of members. He shall be the custodian of the unsold copies of the reports of the Proceedings, receive all orders for the same, and direct their distribution.

He shall receive all membership fees and proceeds of sales of the reports of the Proceedings, and pay the same promptly to the Treasurer. He shall receive compensation for his services and an allowance for clerk hire and other expenses, the amount and time of payment of which shall be fixed by the Executive Committee from time to time.

The Treasurer shall receive and disburse all moneys of the Conference, all disbursements to be made only upon the approval of the President or of some member of the Executive Committee, to be named by the President.

The Official Reporter and Editor shall report and edit the Proceedings of the Conference, subject to the direction of the Executive Committee.

The Corresponding Secretaries shall be responsible for the annual reports from their several States. It should be their duty to secure the attendance of representatives from public and private institutions and societies, and the appointment by Governors of State Delegates in those States where there are no State Boards of Charities.

V. Duties of Committees.

The Executive Committee shall be the President's Advisory Board, and shall hold the powers of the Conference in the interim between the meetings.

The Local Committee shall make all necessary local arrangements for the meeting, and provide funds for the local expenses, such as hall rent, salary, and expenses of the Reporter, local printing, etc.

Each Committee on Subjects shall arrange the programme for the sessions and section meetings assigned to it, subject to the approval of the President.

The committee are required to arrange their programmes so as to give opportunity to free discussion.

No paper shall be presented to the Conference except through the proper committees.

VI. Debates.

In the debates of the Conference each speaker shall be limited to five minutes, except by unanimous consent, and shall not be allowed to speak twice on any one subject until all others have had an opportunity to be heard.

VII. Amendments.

These rules may be suspended or amended at the pleasure of the Conference, but otherwise shall be in force from one year to another.

BOSTON MEDICAL
AUG 29 1910
LIBRARY

I.

President's Address.

THE EMPIRE OF CHARITY.

BY ROBERT TREAT PAINE.

Alliance full of potency for present good and rich in augury of better things to come is cemented here to-day between workers in the noble realm of charity and students eager to shape the ambitions of their youth for the great career of life. Precious privilege to me to welcome these two forces into auspicious union. Energy and wisdom join hands. Workers and students, each conscious of mutual need, aim at a single glorious purpose. Wisdom guided from on high seeks the noblest ambitions of life, while the energies of devoted workers in all the paths of charity feel the need of wisdom. Only an alliance of these two forces can aid each to fulfil its amplest functions. Both must be united to grapple with the stupendous tasks of modern social life, especially in great cities.

Members of the Twenty-second National Conference of Charities and Correction, I bid you welcome, and in your name offer hearty thanks to our hosts in this city renowned for noble culture and triumphant physical prowess.

Unable to meet with you last year at Nashville, when you ventured perhaps for the first time outside the high officers of State Boards of Charities to elect me only a volunteer to this honored office, I thank you from my heart, daring to believe that it sets the seal of your approval on my work in charity since, a quarter of a century ago, in the belief that this life on earth only came to us once and was too precious to be wasted, I abandoned business in the hope to aid a bit in the struggle to make things a little brighter in the neighborhood where my lot was cast.

May I speak one word out of my own experience to declare the

joy of such a life? Deep and pure sources of happiness are found in the constant contact with noble men and women working hard together for noble ends and delighting in the sympathy of mutual counsel, help, struggle, and achievement. Friendships of life are choicest gifts; and with God's noblemen, exalted by high thought, unselfish in aspiration, and tingling with vital energy, the friendships of our career offer exquisite reward.

What brings us to this trysting, over distant hills, out of the great valley, up from the sunny South, from the ocean so far away? Not to legislate, not to vote, still less to act, we meet for three purposes, — strength, friendship, and wisdom.

First, to be stimulated by mutual zeal and to gain the great strengthening uplift which a few workers, in what might seem in a single city a hopeless and unaided task, feel poured into their souls when they meet other resolute men and women, from so many other cities all over the land, fired with the same strong convictions.

Second, to renew and enjoy the warm friendships of admiration and respect for coworkers in charity which these Conferences have so greatly aided to create.

Third, to share in common counsel,— a delight for specialists to meet specialists; but let me say strongly how necessary also for specialists to be forced to let their thoughts range out over the varied field and to study the whole group of related subjects, essential to the best solution of each problem.

What other introduction do men and women wish in this world than assurance of mutual zeal and love for what is best in life? By virtue of my office, therefore, I declare you all introduced each to all others in the strong bonds of a common cause dear to God and helpful to man, the badge we wear and honor, a token of mutual regard.

What is the full significance of this fact that a great university city welcomes this Conference of Charities? Is it not an epoch? How few years ago it was that the first chair of Social Science was set up at Yale or Harvard! Now colleges for men and women are strongly equipped for this study. Is not the science of wealth, its production or distribution, sinking into a rank inferior to the science of man's welfare and social progress?

To-morrow evening Hon. Seth Low, president of Columbia College, in our great metropolis of New York, who has just dazzled and delighted the world of scholars and of public-spirited men by his

magnificent gift of a million of dollars for a library at his own Columbia, presides over the discussion on "Sociology in Institutions of Learning." Think what it means when the young men of a great university are led in the training of their minds and motives by a man like Mr. Low, brilliant writer of able papers at these Conferences over fifteen years ago, president of the Associated Charities of Brooklyn, resigning that office to be the wise and fearless mayor of that city; and, with all this and other rich experience of a maturer life, developing the sociological courses of study at Columbia, and, in addition to mere study, devising a system for students to investigate face to face the tremendous social and labor problems of New York.

Sociology is no longer a soft study. It is the gate to the serious problems of our own and coming ages. No man can guide the people, or grapple with the supreme issues of either business or public life, who is not solidly trained in social science. We will not read over this grim gate Dante's inscription over the gates of hell: —

"Per me si va nella città dolente
Per me si va tra la perduta gente."

No! Not for an instant, in lightest fancy, let us yield to the attack of pessimism. Hope springs eternal, and can rest on no firmer foundation than the rising ranks of brave young men who enter any contest with indomitable will to win and are eager to study earnestly these tremendous problems of social life.

I ventured to make the following suggestions to writers of papers and speakers at this Conference: —

"May it not be well to aim to give a certain dominant trend of thought to the discussions of 1895? The Chicago Conference presented a most valuable series of papers of an historical nature. May not this Conference be made interesting and profitable if authors aim to make their papers, so far as it commends itself to their own good judgment, deal with the future, discussing the present status with especial relation to future evolution of charitable and correctional work, culling out the best features of present activities, that we may emphasize their value and urge their development?

"May not this be done with a certain free, bold, prophetic treatment, so that we may see and study a vision of the future, yet always

based solidly upon, connected with, and growing out of the best charitable attainments of the present time?"

In this spirit let us think: first, what charity can do and is doing; second, what thus far it does not know how to do; third, what it is doing wrong.

Is not charity exerting a visible influence over certain special branches of business, and also, better yet, creating a pervasive and potent atmosphere, not as a usurper, not by any *coup d'état*, of course not claiming any exclusive right to guide affairs, as Phaethon, of fable, urged his right to drive alone through the realms of life and light, to be met with the rebuke: —

"Sors tua mortalis: non est mortale quod optas."

"Thy lot is mortal: what you wish is not for mortals." Rather let charity know its divine birth and certain heritage, and, therefore, remember that its influence is supreme, not so much when it issues commands as when it whispers in the still, small voice. Slowly, beautifully, charity grows conscious of its great heritage to be one of the ruling forces of the world.

No wonder charity feels the need of coming to college that before the advent of the twentieth century it may gain an all-round college training, especially in the direction of study, and be ready to enter on the present and approaching struggles to improve the social conditions of classes or of individuals in our terribly complex civilization, resolved to win at all hazards, and bringing to these transcendent tasks that glory of liberal thought, the modest but solid conviction of how tiny is the speck of knowledge already acquired, and how infinite is the realm of knowledge lying all around our atoms of acquisition and beckoning us with irresistible charm in every direction. "Know thyself" was the modest aim of Greek philosophy when intellect culminated.

The foolish and fatal division of the affairs of life between business and charity is breaking down, never to be set up. Charity summons business to its aid, fully aware of its own limitations. Business in its Protean shapes may thus far have almost monopolized the action of the world. The conquests of war not done yet, industrial struggles still in full force, the exploiting of men by man which built the Pyramids of Egypt and still sweats in sweaters'

dens all around the world,— does not all this and other like business still absorb and enslave our race? But in its visions business sees that, when self-limited and seeking only its own ends, no matter how gorgeous, it is blighted.

Here is a single illustration of this thought. What formula states the claim of pure business better than this,— to charge all that the traffic will bear? Devised by railroads, will not this formula of unlimited avarice apply elsewhere as well? In conquests what limits Japan against China or Germany against France? What else is dividing Africa between England, France, Germany, and Italy? What else governs the price of wheat, cotton, or hides, silks, laces, or bonnets?

Let me answer what else, if only in a small way as yet, may influence the price of money in loans to workingmen.

Ten years ago a carpenter came to me in sharp distress. He had borrowed one hundred dollars on chattel mortgage of all his furniture, even beds, chairs, table, carpets, and all he had,— he a married man with wife and four little children. He had been forced to pay and had paid 8 per cent. a month in advance, and this had gone on for two years and more. So he had really paid off the loan twice over in justice. Then he fell sick, could not work, and the shark was threatening to seize and carry away his furniture, and leave him and his family naked on the world. I said to myself: This is murder. If I live, I will do what I can to stop this thing in Boston.

Not long afterward, after an experiment of seven months, a charter was obtained for the Workingmen's Loan Association in February, 1888, to lend money on chattel mortgage or pawn; and capital was raised. The work rapidly grew and prospered, and proved its usefulness. $123,000 is now loaned out to working people on 1,774 loans. 1,305 loans were made last year. Repayments come in rapidly, $113,000 being repaid, and $119,000 reloaned in twelve months. The evils of this sad system of usury are already sensibly lessened in Boston. Secret enemies sought to create false and foolish fears that losses would be dangerously large. Happily, it turns out that the mass of men are honest. A few losses occur each year, less than 1 per cent. of the sum loaned.

Another marvellous item is that losses by fire are insignificant, a small "risk fund" to protect the company against fire loss, on loans of $100 or less, being found to result almost wholly in net profit.

What now is the rate of interest on all these loans? A uniform rate of 1 per cent. a month. Some friends feared it would not pay. Others condemned it as too high. Both fears proved unfounded. The result is a net dividend on capital of 6 per cent. after all expenses of salaries of treasurer and staff, rent, taxes, losses, and all other sundries have been paid,— surely, a full and just return for capital, especially as a small surplus steadily grows as a reserve against possible risk and future loss.

Now comes the supreme question which I ask myself and you and business men. Is this rate of interest, 1 per cent. a month, showing such results, fixed too high or too low, or fixed right? Why not yield to greed, and ask twice the rate, netting 20 per cent. dividend instead of 6 per cent., as other expenses might not increase? Or, again, why not do the whole business as a charity? Between avarice on the one hand and charity on the other, is there not the true principle of Christian business?

My judgment is that this is the solid rock on which the best growth of future business must stand. Here only can the world find and deserve enduring prosperity; peace instead of war between capital and labor; peace instead of war between the thousands of millions of railroad capital and the millions of farmers, beguiled into bitter hostility as grangers by what they, no doubt partly in error, believed the greed of the common carriers; peace instead of war between labor unions and great corporations.

Workingmen's loan associations ought to be extended widely. May I define man as the only created being which obtains credit? Men of business are relatively few; but they get credit in vast sums. Plain folk are the bulk of mankind; and, though the credits they need are each small, the number of credits is infinite. Hence the tremendous influence on human welfare of a good or a bad system of credit. Cruel usury is the curse of India, grinding down millions of her people. It was and is a terrible evil in our Southern country, making it almost seem as if the end of labor was only to swell the coffers of money-lenders. Every city and, if not every town, at least every county, needs an adequate, humane system of money-lending in small sums on safe security to plain people at just rates of interest, not as a charity, but as a Christian business. This Conference of Charities should promote such a system as a preventive of unjust oppression, crushing victims into poverty and pauperism.

The Boston system was fully described in a pamphlet entitled "Origin and System of the Workingmen's Loan Association," presented to the International Congress of Charities at Chicago in 1893. In response to an inquiry addressed to some sixty persons, asking what results had sprung from their applying for files of the reports of the Workingmen's Loan Association of Boston, I learn of three or four similar corporations.

1. The excellent movement in New York, organized by Rev. David H. Greer, D.D., the Loan Bureau with a capital recently raised from $30,000 to $45,000 for lending on chattel mortgages.

2. The Provident Loan Society of New York, with a capital of $100,000 for lending on pledge, of which Robert W. De Forest is president.

3. Providence has just started a corporation with a small capital of $10,000, to be raised to $50,000.

Strangely enough, the general laws of New York did not permit such loans. Hon. Ansley Wilcox, of Buffalo, whose presence the Conference of Charities enjoyed so much at Chicago, writes me that a general law has recently been passed in New York, permitting the organization of these loan companies in counties of between 300,000 and 600,000 population; and probably next year the law will be made operative through the whole State. Mr. Wilcox calls the attention of this Conference to the need of securing proper legislation where it does not already exist, so that the movement may spread to create these agencies for loaning money to meet the needs of plain people. A similar law is in process of being passed in Minnesota.

Civilization seems to me to deserve severe indictment when it devotes its brains to building up banks of England, France, and Germany, our own banking system, and all the admirable facilities for business men to obtain instantly and easily credit almost *carte blanche*, and rests in supreme apathy while the millions of plain people suffer under a system of cruel neglect and outrage, which either provides no credit for their casual necessities, or where the results of credit are distress, wrong, torture, ruin, impoverishment, discouragement, and pauperism.

Is not charity exerting a yet wider range of sweeter and more pervasive influence by the creation of a certain atmosphere Even where divisions of profits are not open to change, she has a counsel

gentle yet potent to whisper in the ear of angry disputants. If bitter words create bad blood, who can foresee how things would mend if charity could teach both sides in a business struggle to deal with mutual respect, and eschew that angry scorn which often creates and always imbitters the dispute?

This is no childish dream. Charity and solid sense unite to condemn the unutterable folly of present American methods of bitter, wordy war. England is a score of years ahead of America. Self-restraint of speech obviates half the evils of labor conflicts, and enables an early settlement to restore, not merely peace, but sincere good will. Distinguish between the assumed necessities of business and the manner in which they are urged. Terrible examples are fresh in all our memories. The bloody Chicago strike burst into flame, not so much because bad times did not allow the Pullman Company to pay a better wage as because a curt reply of "nothing to arbitrate" inflamed anger. A few hours of considerate discussion would have spared that city and the land the shame and loss and woe of all that tragedy of business and of life.

Is not the same true of the electric railway strike at Brooklyn, deranging the business of that great city a whole month at a vast loss to all concerned? True also of the Haverhill shoe strike of last winter?

Do not let me seem to exaggerate. Of course, I do not mean that labor disputes would not occur if sweet counsels of charity were heard. What I do mean is — and who will be so hardy as to deny — that an increasing share of labor wars can be escaped if the kindly, persuasive influence of considerate charity tempers controversies from long before they begin till long after they end.

The sweetest and most potent word spoken thus far in 1895 is that word "pleasure" in the voluntary notice of the Carnegie Company this month, that they had the *pleasure* of raising the wages of their help.

Take another illustration from the reformatories of Concord, Sherborn, or Elmira. Does not a large part of their influence for good come from a certain prevailing atmosphere of healthy hope and expected reformation, just as the malignant effect of bad prisons grows out of the opposite atmosphere of hopeless and brutal defiance?

The struggle between altruism and pure self-seeking is so far set-

tled that the best thought of to-day admits and knows that personal service is the corner-stone of the world's progress and a necessary part of inevitable evolution. Personal service underlies God's universe. Personal service brought our Saviour to his mission and sacrifice for men. Kidd's "Social Evolution" has stimulated this most exalted movement of our times, shaping thought into conscious definite shape of noblest altruism. We know now better than ever before that the cause we serve summons, not in feeble tones of dubious supplication, but as with a voice from Sinai, our noblest sons and most consecrated daughters to the most glorious tasks and cares of life, personal service for every suffering need.

The responsibilities of wealth, what are they? What question just now burns more keenly in the minds and hearts of the rich and of all thoughtful persons? What bright vista, sparkling with sunshine, opens on the eyes of to-day and the imagination of the future? Attacks of envy, ignorance, or anarchy, or even of unjust law, only hinder the world's advance. Wealth began with Adam's spade, and will endure till spades are gone. Slowly, but surely, the thought of the world learns that wealth of gold, or faculties, or character, is not a selfish possession, but is charged with splendid trusts. Co-operation was born at Bethlehem, if not before, and was clinched on Calvary.

Let me indulge in paradox, and proclaim the impotence of mere philanthropy. Is not Miss Dudley, the head of the Denison House College Settlement in Boston, right when she asserts, as a result of her experience, that the working classes "cannot be helped fundamentally or primarily by charity or philanthropy, but by co-operation with them in directions which they themselves think will aid them"?

I am a socialist; but I insist on my right to define this word wisely, not in any exaggerated or extreme sense, surely not with any gross materialistic meaning. Is not its noblest meaning that the strength of the strong and the wisdom of the wise must by the laws of nature and of nature's God be used to help the weak and the foolish? Social progress and the glories of great cities are superb. But the struggle up leaves a submerged tenth.

Socialism to me means that the mighty powers of the State, the city, and of social organization shall be judiciously and nobly used to help the submerged tenth up into fuller life, and also to give justice in full measure and equal opportunities to rise to the solid ranks

of worthy working men and women, who are the great proportion of our population, and are the strength and hope and glory of the new civilization. Socialism means that the forces of society shall unite and delight to remove hard and unjust conditions, and give just opportunities of life to all men.

Who also will not say with me, I am an individualist, conscious of an inexorable law of his being? Only in just union of these two not inconsistent forces, one making for social union, the other for individual life, can the units of the social organism attain their full glory.

So much for what charity in certain large ways is doing: limiting greed by principles of Christian business, and also creating a pervasive atmosphere of Christian charity, often obviating and always tempering disputes, prompting men of noble soul to the service of mankind.

Think next of a few of the unsolved problems in charity. Unemployment, first and chiefest source of many other woes, rises in our country a vast, unwelcome spectre. Who knows how to treat it best in years of especial depression? By labor or gratuitous relief?

New York, Philadelphia, Indianapolis, Boston, Lynn, invented work at low wages. Dr. Stanton Coit says no more food, clothing, and coal should have been distributed in New York than in ordinary years, preferring relief by work. Yet C. S. Loch, secretary of the Charity Organization Society of London, condemns relief by special work, and strongly favors reliance on the usual methods of poor-law relief or charity.

Whence this difference of judgment? Is it because in London unemployment has grown chronic, and chronic relief-works would only aggravate the evils, while in the United States it is not and ought not to be chronic, and can be far more judiciously treated as a temporary problem? These are questions of grave importance, wherein decisions may work for weal or woe. No wonder London is appalled at the magnitude of the problem, when the numbers of the unemployed rise into tens of thousands, and life among them has settled down into apathy. Assisted emigration is slow, costly, and ineffectual. Conditions do not improve. The problem in England grows more insoluble.

Who that has thought and observed is not profoundly perplexed when he finds results just the opposite of what were hoped; that

relief, given in love, begets a degenerate craving for more; that "shelters" in cities gather crowds of vagrants, where cheap rates tempt them to live in prolonged and increasing degradation, begging easily from a half-educated public the meagre means for this wretched life?

Does not the variety of proposed remedies prove that not much progress has been made toward any adequate solution? Single-taxers and radical socialists each are sure their own remedy will work and that of their opponents fail. The intelligent community sees no possibility that either remedy can come or would prove efficacious. Does not the magnitude of this problem of the unemployed in its varied phases deserve anxious study of ablest statesmen? Surely, then, of charity at its best.

Tramps also offer a problem as yet unsolved, at least till we hear the results of Professor J. J. McCook's study and thought. Present evils are flagrant and admitted. I can think of no remedy but a reasonable stent of well-devised work ready for their hand in every city and town across the land, so that they may not be forced to steal or beg, and the charm of their free and easy life may be somewhat abated.

The wage question of poorly paid male labor in large cities, and especially of working-girls, is also insoluble. Can we wonder at their war-cry, "Justice, not charity," when we know as well as they do that four or five dollars a week will not give a shop-girl fit food, raiment, and bed, and we, as well as they, observe health fading and virtue yielding? Can we wonder that labor leaders refuse in their wrath to be satisfied when, out of the big gains men make in business by hiring girls at low wages, their wives devote trifles for convalescent hospitals or midnight missions for the victims of such a system? Salves for sin and suffering will no longer suffice. The complex problem of wages and population in great cities challenges supreme wisdom, energy, and devotion. Must not charity accept the challenge?

Two other things I rank among unsolved problems, the liquor nuisance and foul homes. We know well enough what ought to be done: these nuisances should be abated. But we do not yet know how to secure these results. Our large cities are almost apathetic about the evils of groggeries, perhaps in despair, but are devoting keener interest to the housing question.

The census of Boston's tenements, made by the State Labor Bureau two years ago, is a masterly report, in full and digested shape, of the evils, their location, nature, and extent; but after the report appeared Boston behaved like Micawber, and thanked God that thing was done. New York has just issued a report by the Tenement House Committee of the State, of intense interest.

Time fails to multiply the unsolved problems of charity. Numerous, momentous, prolific, they challenge the soul of our country and age. Here are tasks and careers worthy of our best men and women in utter devotion.

But charity is guilty of worse things than ignorance. Charity is doing many things wrong. Dr. Walker said that while in morals the obvious was usually true, in economics the obvious was usually false. Charity, in relieving distress, often creates more than it relieves. Charity means to be kind and gives, but proves to be cruel when it tempts weak men from work to beggary. Charity opens a five-cent night shelter in Boston, which gathers a multitude of loafers whom it trains to a degraded life of idleness, though just round the corner stands the Municipal Wayfarers' Lodge, with open doors, cleaner beds, better food, and a bath. But the stent of two hours of sawing wood repels, while cheaper life attracts and degrades.

Does not the treatment of criminals and paupers in institutions often deserve the same indictment of being done wrong? How large and vicious a class we find vibrating between jails, houses of correction, almshouses, and hospitals. All that many officers care for is a low per capita cost. How to reduce the evil is beyond their ken or thought. How the community should grapple with the evil at its sources and cut off the supply does not awaken sufficient public interest to rescue these institutions from the care of inferior men or party politics. Prison systems create too many criminals, while they offer small chance for a return to virtuous life when the doors open.

I wonder if New Haven has not the best system in the United States for aiding discharged prisoners to regain an honest career in life. Professor Francis Wayland came to Boston from here ten years ago to tell us of your admirable and successful system, but thus far not much progress has been achieved in Boston in following your lead. Mistaken treatment in these and other ways is guilty of fos-

tering a rapidly increasing class of degraded criminals, often the progeny of criminal or diseased or feeble-minded parents.

Leaders in charity are alive to these evils, and cry out against them. But not yet can they gain public support for needed reforms. The college settlements are doing glorious work. Hull House attacks the evils of a congested district in Chicago with maps and data, on a like plan to that stupendous work of Charles Booth on the East End of London. Who does not feel the vital relation of all these problems of what charity can do, or cannot yet do, or is doing wrong, to the welfare and best progress of the world? What is to be the final outcome, good or evil? Which shall prevail, Utopia or the slum?

Let me urge on members of this Conference that all these varieties of work in cities should rest on thorough knowledge, and be easily promoted and wisely guided by working libraries of the best sociologic literature.

Boston has for a few years past been purposing to organize such a library in some central site, free for study to all who wish, perhaps also a bureau for lectures and conferences and concentrated interest, influence, and co-operation. Ought not every great public library to set apart ample facilities for sociologic study, with the best and newest literature gathered into convenient alcoves, easy of access and always open?

Ought not somewhere in the United States a central bureau to be established to gather, digest, edit, and, if need be, translate, valuable publications, and on some simple, judicious scheme disseminate selected portions widely through the cities which are eager for sound data, but lack facilities as yet where workers in charity can learn the results of the action, experiment, or thought of other cities or writers?

I am ashamed of the condition of Boston in this regard. The time has come to put our sociological work and study on a worthier and more thorough basis of scientific knowledge.

A bibliography of current literature I wish might be yearly published in our volume as a guide and aid to study by us all. What a rich and useful mass of literature our friends are issuing on the subjects which this Conference of Charities and Correction meets to discuss!

Come now, and let us measure the full significance of all these

facts I have passed in review, and which have developed so marvellously the last score of years.

This outburst of charitable energy and thought, invasion of colleges by social problems, absorption in them of a large staff of able teachers, keen interest in them by our noblest youth of both sexes, growing interest of the public, awakening of the public conscience, the search light of literature turned on to the shady side of life, the prominence of these questions in legislation, the red heat of labor leaders, their wrath at ineffectual charity, the recognized relation of the wage problem to social progress and virtue, the rising tide of indignation at the failure of prison discipline, alarm at the gathering masses of degraded criminal pauper life, intense interest in the stupendous problem of unemployment aggravated by the commingling of genuine searchers for work with idle loafers at cheap shelters, trained tramps and feeble-minded offspring of wretched parentage, the rising wrath of the people at the foul and cruel conditions of slum life increased by the belief that the degraded population living and growing up in such unfit homes not merely adds to the cost of all our institutions, but depresses the whole rate of wages by the competition of wretched and poorly paid labor,— these are tremendous problems. Mark well the intense interest in them more widely felt each year. Will not future history, looking back over the ages, declare that in these last decades of the nineteenth century occurred a revolution not wholly unlike, and even surpassing in its benignant influence on the welfare of man, the great revolutions of the seventeenth century in England or the American and French revolutions of a century ago? England shook herself free from the rule of royal despots. America asserted to the world the inherent right of popular independence. France broke in blood the shackles of popular servitude.

The revolution of which our century is not yet conscious means not so much that labor shall be free and workmen honored as that *noblesse oblige*,— that the rich, the happy, the cultured, are put under a conscious moral servitude to every form of distress, only to be likened reverently to that which obliged the Creator of the world to send His Son to minister to man. Is it too bold a paradox to say that, while the revolutions of 1688, 1775, and 1792 liberated man, the revolution of our day in the world's best progress has again enslaved him?

The glory of life,— whence comes it,— if not out of what is intensely loved, sought for, fought for, if need be, died for?

Our Revolution gave us immortal patriots. Slavery fired the lips of Whittier with impassioned verse, goaded John Brown to die with words not unlike those of Socrates, and inspired Lincoln to speak the divinest words ever uttered on this continent. Is the age of poetry dead? Have pulpits lost their power? Is there nothing that men care for supremely? Has our age lost that Promethean fire of intensity, source of exalted thought, inspired speech, heroic life? Who dares to enter a university city, and talk such folly? Not I, for one. Yet I will not deceive myself, nor you, nor ingenuous youth.. The danger is terrible, not so much to the world as to the upper classes, to educated men.

Nil admirari is death, moral, spiritual, potential, death. For college men it is abdication. If they halt or stammer or play, other men in dead earnest will take the lead, and win the game, and wear the laurel. The most powerful speech in recent years in old Faneuil Hall in Boston came from the lips of John Burns, the great labor leader of London, a few months ago. The uplift of workingmen in England, their deep interest in honest municipal government and in labor reforms,— these subjects made Burns an apostle of power as he spoke, red-hot with fervid devotion to a great cause.

Not in jealousy, but in noble emulation, Yale and Harvard and Columbia, and all the rest, must send their men into the contest for the leadership of the world, not merely with broad and solid foundation of knowledge, not merely with thorough special training in sociologic problems, but, more than all else, with a fiery enthusiasm of human sympathy. Never more than to-day did the world cry out for great leaders,— whence shall they come? From the ranks of the people, or from schools and colleges? From the bench of hard toil or the desk of study?

God grant that both may unite in cordial cowork, in hearty mutual respect, in noble rivalry, that union may bring strength equal to the tremendous tasks, which are almost infinite, when men are conscious of the duties growing out of the brotherhood of man.

II.

Conference Sermon.

THE DEVELOPMENT OF ETHICAL FORCES.

BY REV. T. T. MUNGER, NEW HAVEN, CONN.

"And when he was come into his own country, he taught them in their synagogue, insomuch that they were astonished, and said, Whence hath this man this wisdom, and these mighty works? Is not this the carpenter's son? Is not his mother called Mary? and his brethren, James, and Joses, and Simon, and Judas? And his sisters, are they not all with us? Whence then hath this man all these things? And they were offended in him. But Jesus said unto them, A prophet is not without honor, save in his own country, and in his own house. And he did not many mighty works there because of their unbelief."— MATT. xiii. 54–58.

There is a touch of naturalness in these words that puts their authenticity beyond all doubt. It does more than authenticate the record: it uncovers human nature. Jesus had been brought up in Nazareth, was the son of a carpenter there, had played as a child in its streets, was one of a family of children, had worked at his trade, and at last had left the place, gone down into the region of the Jordan, and received baptism at the hands of John. After a time he returns in an entirely new character,— a remarkable speaker in the synagogue and a healer of diseases. The people were astonished. "Whence this wisdom and these mighty works?" They do not wonder at the wisdom or the works, but at the source of them. They detected the wisdom, they appreciated the works; but much as they — Hebrew-like — delighted in wise words on religion, and much as they — like all men — were amazed by miracles, they threw both aside, and turned their wonder on the man. But the wonder was too much for them. They stumbled over it into incredulity, forgot the wisdom, explained away the miracles, and lost the good of both. Had some gray-bearded hermit in strange garb come from Lebanon or the desert, and spoken the same words and done the same works,

they would have listened and believed and followed. But a prophet at home was an unheard-of thing. Why, here are his brothers whom we all know by name, and even his sisters. He is the son of our neighbor, the carpenter: he is one of us. He is no prophet nor wonder-worker.

Jesus himself was not surprised at their unbelief and unwillingness to hear him. It had always been so: a prophet has no honor at home. He could not overcome their inveterate inability to think otherwise, and he left the city. It was undoubtedly a hindrance to Christ's work that he was too well known. If one is an ordinary person, engaged in ordinary work, intimate knowledge is an advantage: the common understands the common, and keeps within its range; but he who is called to greatness, and is lifted into its heights, not only fails of recognition, but finds his field of action closed to him. But it was a limitation that Christ courted or rather suffered. He would not make himself extraordinary: it was foreign to his conception of himself. He would remain a common man among his fellows. He put on no badges, and avoided whatever shut him out from the rank and file of men. It was this habit, not assumed but grounded in his nature, that strengthened the natural disposition of his neighbors to withhold their faith in him as a prophet. His life had not been wonderful in word or deed, but only in that way which men are slow to see,— purity of spirit, fidelity in duty, excellence in conduct. There had been nothing demonstrative about him, nothing marked except a brooding silence that foreran the great mystery that was gathering about him.

The feeling of the people toward him sprang out of the gregarious instinct that lingers within us. We think gregariously, and do not easily conceive it possible for one of our number to think in any other way. A person is the last product of creation, and we have not yet become familiar with it. It is with difficulty that we make room in our thought for great men. If they appear, they must come from afar, from another herd than our own; and they are seldom understood.

But what a loss it was to these people of Nazareth that they could not believe in Jesus, who had come back to them with the clear marks of a prophet upon him! How little did they know of the thoughts that filled his mind, of those conceptions of God and man and society and duty and life and destiny which had become clear

to him,— wrought into a unity and order which he called the kingdom of God,— a thing of equal reality with the kingdom of nature! He had made a great discovery, a new world into which he was ready to welcome them as citizens; but they could not even see that there was such a kingdom. Christ asked no recognition of himself as a person. There was no ontological mystery for which he claimed acquaintance. He was content to be known as the carpenter's son. He required no worship. He will even be as a servant among them; but he had learned something in his baptism and temptation which was of infinite importance to them. In his discovery of the kingdom of God he had come into a consciousness of sonship in God. Jesus was possessed by a profound logic: he saw things in their relations and implications. The fatherhood of God was an old truth,— the prophets were full of it; but fatherhood implies sonship. The sense of this relation came to him in all its fulness when the spirit descended on him in the baptism. It was confirmed in the temptation, and made fundamental in his life. It spread out into a broad system of related truths and duties: it gave meaning to all things. Nature became an expression of the indwelling God who worked in it eternally. Human society became a divine order. All men became the sons of God; for God is the Father of all. Hence all men are brethren, and their duties are shaped by this relation. Sonship must realize the divine fatherhood, reproduce it, and so bring out the Deity that is immanent in humanity. Brotherhood means love and all that love involves,— sacrifice, sympathy, helpfulness, forbearance, patience, and a host of minor qualities that buttress these great virtues; and, because all this is divine and is supreme in life, it becomes the sum of all truth and is worth dying for, because it involves and carries with it the order of society and the salvation of every man's life.

This is what was set before the people of Nazareth; but they refused to believe it because it came from one of their own citizens. What a loss! The kingdom of God brought nigh and missed! But this was not all. They not only failed to see the beautiful world of truth that was opened before them,— making plain the past history of the nation and meeting the perplexities of their hearts,— but they failed of the practical benefits that would have come from such truths if they had accepted it. He did not many mighty works there because of their unbelief.

Explain the miracles of Christ as you will, and it does not much matter how they are explained nor in which category, natural or supernatural, you put them. Draw the pen of criticism across half of them if you must, there remains this impregnable fact: that his life and deeds were what his principles required; truth and conduct were made one reality.

Why was not the Christ a Greek? or, rather, why did not Greece produce a Christ? Why was he a Hebrew? The Greek was content to see truth apart from life. The Hebrew could not: it simply had no existence for him except as fact. This was the burden of the prophets,— that truth and fact were disjoined and should be united. Christ followed and embodied the genius of his nation, and turned his truth into reality. He was in a real world, and he made his life real: otherwise, he would not have been the Christ. It was thus that he knew he must die in sacrifice. Love was not a sentiment, but a way of living; and to live out his love would cost him his life,— this he knew. But the truth he saw with such clearness required more: it led him to turn every phase of it into some corresponding action. It was not truth to him until it was so used.

When shall we learn this, when give over our endless speculations on truth that ends in nothing, and pass into that higher realm of thought where truth becomes truth because it is made one with fact and conduct? There is nothing that we more need to keep in mind in the deliberations of this Convention than that every social truth brought to light must instantly be vested in some practical form. Hence the works and words of Christ. Of which was there the more,— words or works? Never was there a word without a deed: never a deed but the word of eternal truth out of which it sprang, word and deed forming a perfect whole. Thus Christ correlated himself to the world in which he found himself, reflecting its order and course in his own life. The world is God's thought turned into reality: it is the will of God made fact. Christ is no dreamer gazing into the heavens, but the very incarnation of the Mind that thought the world, and so made it,— a simultaneous and indissoluble process. The merciful deeds that went along with his words— so entangled in them that you cannot draw them out and leave the words — are a part of the words, and with them formed his life. They are the Logos. If men could not receive his words, they could not share in his works. The divorce was not retributive,

but necessary. Jesus did not make it: it made itself. Nothing is gained in the long run by allowing a separation of the physical from the ethical. We hear of agnostics who are heroically and painfully striving to redeem the slums by securing some order and cleanliness in them; but you cannot divide man in this way. Christ would not attempt to do anything for men unless it took in their whole nature. He treated man as a whole because he is an indivisible whole. There is no blade sharp enough to separate intellect from feeling. There is no eye keen enough to see where the physical ends and the mental begins. This is something that needs to be kept steadily in view in all efforts to reform and uplift society. You recognize and confess it by coming here in the midst of your deliberations not to hear your work discussed, but to listen to the word that shall give meaning and worth to it. And that word is this: there is not the slightest permanent value in any work of charity or reform you undertake unless it has regard to the moral welfare of those for whom it is done.

This, I conceive, is what is meant by doing all things in the name of Christ: they must be done in his way, the supremely wise, the profoundly true, the necessary way,— a universal method that had its illustration in that Galilean city which failed to secure the benefit of his works because it would not receive his words. Into the mystery of his works it may be difficult to penetrate; but, whatever the process,— natural or supernatural,— they could not be wrought in a man except as they embraced his whole nature. Hence that city which had no eyes except for the common round of things went untaught, uncomforted, unhelped. The kingdom of God had come nigh, but its blessings were untasted because its conditions were not obeyed.

The point to which I have been speaking so far is this: That the people failed of great good because they were blind to the source of it. They did not believe that Jesus could make good his words.

I propose to turn this concrete example into a general truth; namely, there is a great deal of power waiting for development at the hands of those who are working for the good of mankind.

The most striking feature of the day is the development of new forces. It is so great that there is simply no end to it. We no longer prophesy: prophecy cannot measure probability. Any day may bring out something that will revolutionize the face of the

globe, and society as a consequence. We who work in moral ways are slow to see that possibly the same thing may be true in our world. It has hardly occurred to us that as the earth under our feet is stored with undeveloped forces, so the moral world may have lodged within it energies peculiar to itself not yet realized. We have rather assumed that we have a complete system, full and strong enough for whatever is to be done; and we are sometimes disposed to decry any attempts to enlarge or even alter it. But see what is going on in the realm of material invention,— every day fresh developments of power and new combinations of forces; nothing is created, only discovered. So in our world and work is it not possible that we could take some of our elemental truths and bring them into a stronger working form, or so unite one truth with another that they shall develop a new moral force?

Let me make a few suggestions in this direction.

The first is that there is a vast amount of moral force and encouragement lodged in the truth of divine sovereignty — I use the term not in a theological, but rather in a dynamic sense — that has not yet been brought out, and awaits development.

The strong religions have always contended for this doctrine as a primary and fundamental truth. Whatever becomes of human freedom, we must have divine sovereignty, in spite of the metaphysical and practical difficulties in the way. It has always been full of comfort and power, but we are permitted to see it to-day in a way that adds immensely to its practical value. It is no longer solely a matter of revelation or an inference from history: it is a fact of science, which at last, as a scientific necessity, rests the whole movement of creation and the order of the world on the will of God. This is as well established as gravitation or chemical affinity. Natural selection, always held in a critical way, becomes subordinate to this older and newer truth of the divine will and purpose. Its method is by evolution.

It is one of the chief consolations and encouragements of earnest workers for the uplifting of society that they are laboring under such a law as this. The same power that lifted the continents out of the waters is raising mankind to higher conditions. It is the divine will working toward a full realization of itself,— the divine working for the divine. The course of the world is simply a realization of the will of God. By its very nature it is always pressing

toward higher forms; from chaos to order, from simplicity to complexity, from life to more life,— all tending to the production of the brain which crowns and covers man like a dome. Now begins a moral order. Heart takes its full place beside the will. Out of relationship springs the sense of duty; conscience spreads over life; the sacredness of the world and of man and of society begins to be felt; the vision of God comes with clearness, and love divine and human is on the stage.

The significance of this process or progress lies in the fact that it has been going on from the beginning,— one movement, one thought, one purpose, one will behind and in it all: it is divine sovereignty on its proper scale. But see where it points,— to mind, perhaps you say. No, to the moral and spiritual. If the movement is not a delusion, it must reach such a stage: otherwise, God would stop short of himself. We have been taught to think that man will preserve about the same proportions as to natural qualities; that his type is pretty well fixed, that human nature will not greatly change: that he will go on contending for himself, unselfish only so far as religion requires it. This old question has become a very new one, and is the most vital in, at least, three sciences,— biology, sociology, and theology. Christ anticipated them all, and made the decision in his own person. He fixed the bounds of the developing universe by loving his neighbor as himself even to the point of total self-sacrifice and by oneness with God in the spirit. In him is revealed the destiny of society, ages ahead of us, but a goal toward which the same power that created the heavens and the earth and made man in his own image is leading the world. Man will not become a different kind of being: the type will not change, but the type will be developed. We still have but an imperfect idea of man. We only know that there are in him certain things, potential qualities, that have had so far no adequate expression. Who will say that the forces represented under the general term *religion*, and more particularly that quality known in religion as *love* and in science as *altruism*, have had so far any due and adequate part in human life and conduct. This side of man's history lies in the future. The day will come, and is fast coming,— your Convention is one sign of it,— when love will play as large a part in society as selfishness has in the past. It is as sure as that God is himself.

We do not forget the frequent criticism that, with less of struggle

for self and more altruism, society would deteriorate. But society has made too many advances beyond its first condition of endless war with clubs for the best chances at food to be troubled by such prophecies. It has leaped too many chasms in its upward march to fear falling into this one. It has too often rehabilitated itself and taken on new motives to deem itself unable to adopt another still higher. Sir Henry Maine, in his "Ancient Law," quotes Homer's description of primitive society, as one in which "men paid no regard to one another." From such a condition to that of the present civilization is a transition not greater than that upon which society is now entering. Love comes forward, not a weak and pitiful figure, but a mighty power, full panoplied; not alone, but attended by a vast retinue of forces whose office it is to secure order in a world where love reigns.

It is, I say, an immeasurable comfort and encouragement to us who are working on the lines laid down by your programme that we have not merely hope and faith in a far-off revelation to rest on, but knowledge that an omnipotent Power is leading the world on in the direction in which we are laboring.

The question now comes up how we are to co-operate with this world movement, how we are to insert our agency into a process so mighty that it seems not to need it.

If I felt at liberty to take you into the realm of theology, I would refer to those later conceptions of the kingdom of God which now prevail. Professor Harris, the venerable theologian whom we all revere, said to me with enthusiasm, yesterday, "This Convention is a part of the kingdom of God." Whether you confess it or not, you are laboring in that purely divine order described by that phrase,— an order in which God and man work under one law, in one spirit, and for one end. It is in this relation that the divineness of our nature and our real sonship in God come out.

My first answer is, by insisting in all our work on the ideal, tempering it with practical wisdom.

It will never do to lose sight of the ideal. When we do that, we forget our own nature and the nature of the work in which we are engaged. We are made after the power of an endless life, and our task is the regeneration of human society. The workers and the work are thus correlated to an ideal achievement. It will not be fulfilled until a regenerated humanity is delivered up to God, that he

may be all and in all,— dear and sacred words, easily translated into the language of science; for science is also keyed to moral perfection.

But, while we contend for the ideal, we must not forget that it lies afar off and at the end of things. We cherish the ideal because it is stored with hidden forces that may be drawn out and used, but only in a certain order. The higher conditions the lower,— we must never forget that; but it is also conditioned by the lower, and this also we must never forget. To recognize this condition, and so manage it that it shall do its work, and then give way to the higher, is well-nigh the sum of practical wisdom. Goethe says, in substance, "Greatness depends on knowing your limitations." It is true also of reforms: they must know their limitations. Moral and social reforms are beset by two enemies,— those who thrive on the evils that are attacked, and idealists who will have everything or nothing. It is not unjust to say that the latter often inflict the most injury. Social reform is a battle. In our own country the opposing side, the fighting force, is greed,— not ambition nor love of power, but pure and simple love of money. "To this complexion" have "we come at last." While it represents the depths of vulgarity and baseness, and is a powerful enemy, it could be successfully fought if there were agreement on the other side. What is more melancholy than the history of the temperance question during the last forty years,— every possible advance thwarted by divided opinion in the ranks of reform! As the result, the saloon holds the field, and bids fair to hold it until idealists cease to play into its hands, and begin to co-operate with those who are ready to undertake what is possible, but not what is impossible.

The plea of the idealist is conscience; but conscience waits not alone on the ideal, but also on the possible. The Rev. Charles Gore aptly says: "No truth can degenerate into a greater lie than it is a man's first duty to follow his conscience. A man's duty is to enlighten his conscience." To insist on the ideal because the indorsement of anything short of it is an offence to conscience is a blind misuse of conscience. It is a denial of progress, which is by steps and stages; and of the law of growth,— first the blade, then the ear, and at last the full corn in the ear. It overlooks the truth wrapped up in the saying that God winked at times of ignorance.

The choice between the possible and the ideal is often difficult: it is not easy to know where to draw the line. I know of no better way than to keep one's eye on the ideal, but not to insist on it. Meditate on it, cherish it, enshrine it in your hearts. Let it be a temple where you go to pray and refresh your spirit; but, when you come out, face the world as it is, and do the best you can. Only do something,— the first and constant requisite in all human undertaking. It is a long and weary path that humanity has to tread. The spires of the golden city shine in the distance but are reached only by a path that sometimes drops into low valleys, sometimes winds as if it turned back; and every step is so short that progress is seen only by faith. But, meanwhile, we may rest confidently in the reality of the ideal and draw in its inspiration. If the kingdom were not to come, if society were not to be regenerated, little heart would be left us even to deliberate on the evils of the world, and none at all for resisting them. We are not striving to overcome certain abuses, but to deliver from all evil.

My second suggestion is that we should press the altruistic principle into the fullest possible use.

The time has come for ascending into the higher forms of human helpfulness and service. The door that opens and no man shuts is turning on its hinges, and we catch glimpses of that world in which the love of God is man's rule of conduct. The peculiarity of the end of the age is a tendency to think correctly. The glamour of Greek art and ideals, the art for art's sake hallucination, the conscienceless literature,— each with its deep and subtle selfishness,— are passing by, dying of their own emptiness. The world has no more use for them. The age of agnosticism, with its paralysis of the moral nature, is also passing. Its vision of a godless universe is ending,

> "And on the glimmering limit far withdrawn
> God makes himself an awful rose of dawn."

A clearer faith, a more altruistic service,— these are the signs we see in our sky. God and duty, Christ and the Christ-life,— these are now before us, not merely under the form of the Church, but also as the revelation of science and the product of thought. The developing world is drawing nigh to the Life that was lived under the Syrian sky. We are actually taking into our thought and turning over as something worth testing the idea that not struggle for exist-

ence but love is the law of the world. Mr. Kidd does great mischief when he relegates this truth to the super-rational realm. It is instead the very soul of reason: it is the burden and secret of nature, only we have not clearly seen it. That my neighbor is as real as myself, and that, therefore, it is my duty to love him as myself, is unquestionable logic; but we have not fully thought it out.

It only remains to apply this truth to society. My suggestion is that we should crowd it upon the world as fast as we can. There is already more of it than most of us suspect. Your Convention that has broken in upon our studies and industries — a most welcome intrusion — is one of many signs of the multitudes who are applying the altruistic law to the present condition of society.

There is, in some quarters, fear lest it will work deterioration of character by weakening self-reliance. It is urged that it is better to leave men to the laws by which the deserving win and the weak fail; that what is needed and aimed at is a world full of strong men, and not a world full of patched-up weak ones,— questions on which we will not now enter, only remarking that we must be careful how we handle these great words; careful also lest we find ourselves repeating the worn-out catchwords of past ages, deaf to some heaven-born words that are fast finding their way into the vocabulary of modern thought. It is unfortunate that, whenever the word "love" is used, it is thought to imply a sentiment or a gift. It is a sentiment, and it may imply a gift; but it is more than either or both. Neither indicates its prime function. This, I should say, *is to secure a full individualism as a basis for the social system.* Its first and main aim is to strengthen the man himself. And the chief work it has to do is to take off the burdens and root out the evils that now crush men into misery and weakness. If I were to look into the Scriptures for the word that best describes the task that lies before social reform, it would be that spoken at the grave of Lazarus,— "Loose him, and let him go." Make a living man of him, unbind him, and he will take care of himself. When that is done, social science may take him and fix his place in the social fabric. At present and for a long time to come the main business of reform will be to work out those evils that have made men weak and defeated their manhood. It does not presume to wage a contest with nature, in order to save those who it were better should not be saved. Its contest is with the evils that have brought about an abnormal state

of society and filled it with abnormal men. Let it be as it will and must with these: love will do its uttermost for them; but the main thing it has to do is to stop the processes that are turning out generation after generation of bruised and maimed and thwarted humanity. Such is the work of altruistic reform,—not the ideal fantasies of Mr. Howells, nor the vagaries of Mr. Bellamy, nor the reduction of society to one vast man, as socialism would have it, but rather such an improvement of social conditions that individualism shall have full play.

Thus character becomes possible,—the only logical explanation of humanity, the only achievement worth striving for.

> "If this fail,
> The pillar'd firmament is rottenness,
> And earth's base built on stubble."

III.

State Boards of Public Charities.

IDEAL PUBLIC CHARITY.

REPORT OF THE STANDING COMMITTEE ON STATE BOARDS OF PUBLIC CHARITIES.

The world is governed by ideas: the idealist is an uncrowned king. All institutions are the embodiment of ideas. The ideal of mutual affection and self-sacrifice is forever renewed in the family, which keeps it alive for the benefit of mankind, as the Roman vestals preserved for posterity the divine gift of fire. The Church exists as a semi-supernatural propaganda of righteousness,— a righteousness so transcendent that it ceases to be known by that name, and is called holiness instead. The modern State has its invisible, if not unattainable, goal in the reconciliation of personal freedom with the acknowledged need for order and subordination. The ideal of the university is scholarship; the revelation of the unknown, not by miracle, but as the reward of intellectual labor, and by the conservation and diffusion of the discoveries of philosophy, science, and art. These and all other ideals are in the nature of inspiration, moving individuals and the world to higher and yet higher achievements. The crises of history have been the epochs when the passionate purpose to realize some unfulfilled ideal has swept into temporary oblivion the prudential considerations which impede the path of progress. The leaders of humanity have been the men with the largest, clearest, highest, most enduring ideals, whom the world has at first scorned, as it scoffed at Lincoln and crucified Jesus Christ, but whose conceptions of life and duty have at last been accepted and given shape to customs and to laws. The idealist is a poet of the first rank. He does not write poetry, perhaps, but he lives it, in

the sense that his imagination enables him to see what other men cannot see, because it is hidden or too remote; and by translating his vision into action he takes rank with the creators. His power depends upon his sensibility, for an idea may be defined as a thought wedded to a sentiment.

It is the idea that underlies this Conference, which gives it vitality and influence. The same idea underlies the State Boards of Public Charities. To develop it in your consciousness is the aim of the present report. For there are three mental states,— consciousness, unconsciousness, and subconsciousness. Subconsciousness resembles latent heat. It is the condition of pretty much all bodies of men, in proportion to their size. A community is never blind to its history, relations, and destiny; yet it perhaps never fully images them forth to itself.

In its original constitution this Conference is essentially the annual meeting with each other of the American State Boards of Charities, which the representatives of all charitable and correctional institutions and societies in the United States are invited to attend. The motive of the invitation so freely extended is twofold: it includes the desire on the part of the members and officers of these boards to qualify themselves for their work by a wider survey of the field which it is their special duty to cultivate; and also the wish to create a wise public opinion upon all questions connected with the care of the destitute, the unfortunate, and the criminal, as the only medium in which these boards can act so as rightly to discharge their peculiar function of influencing legislation. The aim of the State Boards and of the Conference, in this regard, is identical. More with a view to emphasizing the permanent relations of the boards to the Conference than for any other reason, its President has always, until this year, been chosen from their own number. To keep the Conference alive and to extend its power for good is one of their first and highest obligations, as it is their obvious interest. No other power can do it. If the general direction and control of the work of the Conference should ever be wrested from them, at the suggestion of personal ambition or excessive enthusiasm for the promotion of some special philanthropic interest, by the will of an accidental numerical majority, the organization would, in our judgment, be in peril of going to pieces, and the section which should retain the name, but not the substance which the name implies, would be-

come a fragmentary body, devoid of any large attractive power, like a star without a solar orbit.

The first element in the composite ideal for which the State Boards and the Conference stand is universality. This universality grows out of the solidarity of the States of which the Boards are organs, and out of the breadth of the responsibilities imposed upon them by the laws to which they owe their existence.

They depend upon no section of the community for support and authority. They sustain no official relation of affiliation to any religious sect. They are or should be above the limitations of partisan fealty. They are under no obligation; and they have no right to reflect, in their sympathies or efforts, the narrow views of any set of social or philanthropic *doctrinaires*. Their place in the economy of charitable and correctional administration is unmistakably defined, and it cannot be changed. They stand between those whom the State is under obligation to uplift or to repress — the exceptional members of the body politic — and the State itself, the whole people, represented in the legislative and executive branches of the government, especially the legislature, with its power to ordain statutes and make appropriations. Their function is to ascertain the numbers, condition, and needs of the helpless and the lawless; to formulate their rights, for they have rights; to advise the State as to its duties toward them, and the policy to be pursued, in order to render them less numerous and more manageable; to secure, if possible, the enactment of laws tending not simply to the alleviation of suffering and the repression of crime, but to their partial or ultimate extinction, in so far as the operation of the causes which aggravate social evils can be held in check by judicious legislation. They should, in all that they say or do, have a due regard to proportion and perspective, not sacrificing the future to the present, nor a larger to a smaller interest, but seeing to it that the utmost possible is accomplished with the limited means which the liberality of the tax-payers is able and willing to place at the disposal of the agents entrusted with the responsible duty of administering relief in its varied forms,— custody, maintenance, medical care, education, and restraint. Their work is essentially one of perpetual readjustment,— of classification, apportionment, and distribution. It is universal in a double sense. Upon one side it includes all the people, upon the other all who have claims upon the people (includ-

ing even the deaf and blind). In other words, it includes all who give and all who receive. The duty of a State Board is to cast up the entire account, including every debit and every credit, to strike the balance, and, if the account is not squared, to call the attention of the public to its unsatisfactory condition.

The second element in the philanthropic ideal is liberty.

By liberty we mean the freedom of individuals and associations to contribute to the solution of the charitable problem in their own way. The State, in assuming certain burdens as its share of the general work to be done by the community, does not prohibit private charity, either secular or ecclesiastical, to any extent or in any form which, to the givers, appears to be necessary and useful. It has no desire or intention to dry up the springs of benevolence, or to limit the number of beneficiaries, or to prescribe conditions upon which giving to the distressed shall be permitted. The State can suppress public begging in the exercise of its police power, but not unless it provides means of support for those who, if deprived of this resource, would be deprived of a livelihood, because of inability either to work or to secure employment. It can further protect the public against imposture in the name of charity by compelling private institutions and associations to submit to inspection and to make sworn statements of their receipts and expenditures as well as of the character and amount of their actual work. Whether it can do more than this is doubtful, and the exercise of the powers specified is not always expedient. The State is also jealous of the rights of individuals with whom interference on the ground of an intention to confer a supposed benefit is proposed, as in the case of the separation of children from their parents or the arbitrary prohibition of certain forms of child labor, and the like. But the general principle may safely be laid down: that where the parties (the giver and the receiver) are agreed, and no palpable injury to the public can be shown to be involved, and no deception is practised, the State rather welcomes than discourages any assistance in the care of the unfortunate which citizens, acting in their individual or associated capacity, choose to offer.

The third element is simplicity.

Very much trouble is avoided when the line of demarcation between public and private charity is clearly drawn, and not crossed. The simplest and best rule appears to be that which forbids the pay-

ment of any money from any public treasury for the custody, care, or maintenance of any defectives, dependants, or delinquents in any private institution, or by any private corporation organized for that purpose. What the State does is best done when done by the State's own agents and appointees, who are directly subject to its orders, and liable to instant discharge if those orders are disobeyed. Private institutions have no right to organize and go into business on the assumption that the State will support them, either by subsidies or by contracts, which are indirect subsidies. The State abrogates some portion of its dignity and evades some portion of its responsibility whenever it fails to do all that its duty to the unfortunate and the erring demands. It cannot divide it with any other party whatever. If private charity undertakes a benevolent work, such charity should likewise be complete. It should assume the entire burden which it pretends to carry. The effect of mixing the two methods is unfortunate in many ways: by the needless multiplication of institutions and the enlarged expenditure which it entails, by the conflict of authority to which it so often leads, by the lack of adequate and suitable supervision in so many instances, and by the inducement thus held out to fraud in the reception and retention of persons as objects of charitable care who have no valid claim to such care, and who are frequently injured rather than benefited by it. The evidence that this is so may not be of such a character as to warrant a public scandal; and, if it were, the exposure of wrongs, perpetrated under the cloak of charity, is a thankless task, involving serious fighting, at some risk, with no personal honor to gain by victory. There is, therefore, too much reason to believe that more or less wrong in institutions thus subsidized escapes punishment altogether. Finally, as to this point, the combinations made upon the floors of the halls of legislation and in the greater seclusion of the committee-room or the hotel lobby, by the representatives of these institutions, are greedy and shameless, if not corrupt.

The fourth element is humanity.

The word "humanity" does not fully express the thought that public charity, the gift of the entire people through their representatives in the legislature, a tax voted upon themselves for the benefit of the weaker members of the community, is the formal, official expression of the popular conviction that every civic corporation is in fact a brotherhood. Public charity, as we understand it, is impossible

where the brotherly feeling which underlies democratic institutions is lacking,— the feeling that the tax-payers are not wronged if that which is voted away of the people's money is the lawful due of those upon whom it is bestowed, a debt of love under the higher law of the golden rule. The social problem with which the whole civilized world is now wrestling, in the hope to coax or compel a solution, is how to reconcile economic and ethical law,— the claims of business and of humanity, the decalogue and the multiplication table. The public conscience is not sufficiently aroused and enlightened to settle the wage question in a manner to avoid the occasion and need for almsgiving in any form; but the millions expended annually, in so-called charity, from the public revenues, are the best proof that the popular heart is a heart of love and tender sympathy.

They prove that the sentiment of equality before God (which is robbed of a portion of its dignity when translated into the phrase equality before the law) and of solidarity of interest based upon racial unity (which in a higher form of expression means common divine sonship),— in other words, the idea of equality founded in brotherhood, founded in sonship,— a religious idea, the name of which is not humanity, but love,— has been inwrought into our political institutions; and herein we have the strongest possible guarantee of their perpetuity. A citizen can accept the loving gift of his brothers without humiliation. If given in the right spirit and accepted in the same, he is not pauperized thereby. He receives nothing that would not be bestowed with equal freedom upon any other citizen in his place, nothing that he would not be called upon to give if he were in the more favored position and circumstances. This is the ideal of public charity. Every man who needs help has the right to expect it, in the first instance, from those nearest to him in blood, affection, or locality; but his ultimate appeal is to the whole human race, and the State ordains that this resource shall never fail him. Indeed, where it is certain that individuals cannot or will not give what is really needed, or that, if they do, they will thereby impoverish or otherwise injure themselves or their families, the State anticipates the demand, and provides help without waiting to be asked to do so. The government thus plants itself upon the principles of the Lord's Prayer and the Sermon on the Mount. The State Boards embody and express this popular religious sense of

humanitarian obligation; and it is their duty neither to betray it themselves nor to let it lapse into oblivion on the part of those whose business it is to give it practical effect.

The fifth element is intelligence.

Here we pass from the *quasi*-religious to the *quasi*-scientific aspect of charitable endeavor. Sound judgment rests primarily upon accurate information. The information required for the improvement of the methods adopted in charitable work, so as to secure a better result at less expenditure of time, money, and personal effort, is of two sorts, namely: knowledge, in the first place, of the local situation; and, second, knowledge of the methods in use elsewhere to meet similar conditions and of their comparative value. It cannot be acquired without labor. There is no excuse for ignorance of the number, condition, and needs of the dependants and delinquents within the jurisdiction of any State Board. The least that it can do is to know what is done in the State to relieve distress and restrain disorder, whether by the State, the churches, or by voluntary associations, and how far the demand for relief and depression is met. It may be more than met in some ways, and the power thus wasted lost for service in other directions. But the ability, efficiently, economically, and equitably, to administer the public charities of a State or of a municipality implies some degree of familiarity with the organization of charity in other towns, States, and countries. Such acquaintance is gained by reading, by travel, and by personal intercourse with those in charge of charitable and correctional institutions and associations. The first test of the thoroughness with which any State Board does its work is found in its library, its collection of documents, pamphlets, and books, and their arrangement; the second, in the record contained in its reports of visits to institutions outside of its own jurisdiction, the inspection of which is serviceable to teach what to avoid as well as what to imitate; the third, in the regularity and extent of the attendance of its members upon this and other similar assemblies of practical workers in the charitable and correctional field. But it is not enough to collect information: it is equally important to diffuse it,—to impart it not merely to the governor and legislature, but to the general public, whose opinion controls these officials. A report on public charities should be sufficiently clear and complete in its statements, statistical and otherwise, to be intelligible to readers in other

States and even in foreign lands; and the records ought to possess a character of uniformity and continuity such as to prove that its author appreciates the fact that he is accumulating material for the future historian and really writing for posterity.

The sixth and last element which we shall name is that of integrity, not merely in the sense of common honesty, but in the etymological significance of the term,— completeness and homogeneity. The duty of a State Board, with reference to the collection and expenditure of public funds, is to see that money is not taken from the tax-payers upon false pretences, nor in amounts larger than is really necessary to accomplish the purpose in view in making a specific appropriation; that it is properly accounted for, and not stolen, either directly or indirectly; and that it is not wasted by the employment of useless supernumeraries, or the payment of extravagant salaries, or by extravagance and display in the buildings and appointments pertaining to a public institution. A thoroughly conscientious and upright Board of State Commissioners cannot do otherwise than frown upon nepotism and political favoritism in the appointment of institution officials and employees. It regards incompetency as the worst form of waste,— a wrong to the beneficiaries of institutions as well as to the public treasury, and an absolute bar to the execution of the popular will in their creation and maintenance. But there is some degree of incompetence wherever there is inexperience. Hence it is opposed to political rotation in office in institutions, where the competency and integrity of the officials in charge are not questioned. It furthermore must be just in its appreciation of the relative claims of the various classes of the unfortunate, not favoring one institution at the expense of another, nor yielding to local pressure for large appropriations at one place and resisting it elsewhere. It stands for truth and righteousness in the administration of a sacred public trust. It looks upon the entire system of charities and correction as a unit, the balance between whose parts and functions must be preserved, at any cost: and it will not swerve to please anybody, however prominent or influential, from the line of inviolable duty.

This is the standard of efficiency by which a State Board must be judged. This is the spirit which it should seek to communicate to every member of the entire organization of which it is the official head, and to instil it into the public and legislative conscience. Its

success or failure in this attempt is the measure of its utility. Without a high ideal, its practical usefulness is *nil*, or, worse than that, a minus quantity.

We have intimated, at the outset, that the ideal of the State Boards, who form the nucleus of this body, is also the ideal of the Conference. In concluding, we beg to submit a few thoughts bearing specifically upon this point. That ideal may be summed up in a single word, "disinterestedness." The Conference represents and embodies the altruistic, not the egoistic idea; and the suggestion of self-seeking in the action of any one of its component parts would be a jarring note in the harmony of its discussions. It can consistently take no position inconsistent, for instance, with the largest inclusion and mutual tolerance. It knows here no distinction of creeds, religious or political, of sects or of sex. It rejects no one on account of his preference for this or that form of charitable or correctional work. Every man and every woman who has the welfare of humanity at heart is free, upon this platform, to advocate any measure or express any conviction, whether in accord with the views of the majority or not, if it is germane to the question at issue.

We think that the sectional meetings ought not to be made so prominent or exacting as to interfere with the general work of the Conference or to act as a check upon the liberty of any member.

We think that the more simply we come together as a family, animated by a single spirit, that of love to each other and to mankind, and the less formal our organization, in the shape of a constitution and by-laws, the less friction there will be, and the greater influence for good we shall exert upon the world. Our religion is the religion of humanity. We must exemplify it in our mutual relations and in our treatment of each other, trusting chiefly for our unity and wise direction to the illuminating power of that divine sentiment. Finally, with regard to the intelligence which we desire to characterize all our proceedings, our assembling in this city, whose atmosphere is that of intellectual culture, and in this hall dedicated to learning, is in itself a guarantee that we desire to benefit by the counsel of scholars, and that we do not fear their criticism. If an alliance can here be formed between the investigators of human need and pain, because that need is not satisfied, and the teachers of the youth who are in later life to grapple with these problems in a

still more complicated form, when the most of us will be in our graves, the advantages of such an alliance to both the parties to it are too palpable to need elucidation. It is in the hope of effecting it that we have sought and accepted the invitation so generously extended to us by the faculty of Yale University and the citizens of New Haven; and we trust that the event will vindicate the motives and the action of the Conference.

FREDERICK HOWARD WINES, *Chairman*,
CLARENCE SNYDER,
JOHN R. ELDER,
GEORGE B. WATERHOUSE,
H. C. WHITTLESEY,
ANNE B. RICHARDSON,
M. A. HOUSEHOLDER,
STEPHEN SMITH, M.D.,
Committee.

BOARDS OF CONTROL.

BY CLARENCE SNYDER,

OF THE WISCONSIN STATE BOARD OF CONTROL.

IS A STATE BOARD OF CONTROL WITH FULL EXECUTIVE POWER PREFERABLE TO A STATE SUPERVISORY BOARD WITH NO EXECUTIVE POWER?

Since the year 1881 Wisconsin's charitable, reformatory, and penal institutions have been controlled by a single board having full executive powers. The first centralized board sustaining this relation to the institutions was composed of five members, who were required by law to devote all their time to the work. Each was paid a yearly salary of $2,000, with reimbursement for all actual and necessary expenses incurred.

Concurrently there existed a supervisory body called the State Board of Charities and Reform, the members of which, five in number, received per diem compensation and expenses. Such duties were imposed upon this Board as are generally supposed to fall

within the province of a State board of charities of average powers in the States where such organizations exist. Ample authority to visit, inspect, hold investigations in, and report upon State institutions was possessed by this Board; and it was required to visit and introduce reforms in the management of various county institutions. To carry into effect its suggestions in reference to jails and county insane asylums, it might withhold State aid from the latter, and by condemnatory proceedings make it unlawful to confine prisoners in the former. In many ways it was a power for good, and its members were well known for their grasp of the problems of the day relating to the several charities then demanding attention. It was always represented at this National Conference; and, indeed, to it belongs a large share of the honor of originating the idea from which grew the first National Conference of Charities and Correction.

The two boards referred to were not always in harmony; and, following the political upheaval of 1890, this fact was seized as one of the reasons for the legislation following, by which both boards were abolished and a single board created to take their place. This is known as the State Board of Control. It has both executive and supervisory powers, inheriting, as it does, all the functions of the boards it superseded. It is charged with the work of maintaining and governing seven State institutions. It must inspect annually (and in some cases much oftener) all the county insane asylums, poorhouses, private and benevolent institutions, jails, and police stations in the State.

This Board probably has more enlarged powers than any other in the United States, and its duties are correspondingly more numerous and exacting.

Our institutions are unfortunately not yet free from partisan influences. Changes in board members and superintendents for party reasons still go on, and it is impossible to predict when that desired era of civil service reform will come wherein questions of political stripe and religious faith do not enter.

Little more than a month has elapsed since the enactment of a law changing the number of members of the Board from six to five; and on April 15 the present Board was appointed, three members of which are new to the work, though all experienced in business and public life. Three days later they entered upon their duties. One

feature of the new law is commended in some quarters, but in others is looked upon as an undesirable innovation. Under it a man or woman may be appointed by the governor to investigate any institution matter concerning which he or the public want information; and the person so appointed becomes for the time a committee of charities sitting in judgment for the purposes of a report upon the Board of Control and all the acts of said Board or the persons appointed under it.

Happily, the legislature of 1895, partisan as were its motives, did not disturb the principle of consolidation in the management of State institutions. The law has twice been tinkered, but there still remains a centralized executive board.

Wisconsin is one of the best States in the Union. It is probably freest from all forms of disorder. Its people have thrift and contentment to an extent not elsewhere surpassed. In higher education it has made remarkable progress, and in all the sociological problems to which the National Conference addresses itself Wisconsin has an intelligent and growing interest. Experiments tried in Wisconsin in the government of State institutions cannot be without some value; and I have therefore thought it well at the outset to give this brief account of our system,— a system which is accepted as having many points of advantage over that wherein separate boards of trustees govern State institutions, supervised by a State agency shorn of executive powers.

The question before us is one of system. It is my purpose to endeavor to show that a State Board of Control with full executive powers is preferable to a State Supervisory Board with no executive powers. It would be difficult to prove that under all circumstances and in all conditions the Wisconsin idea is best; but my faith is unshaken that the principle in some form is everywhere applicable, and that, when it is applied, it will give beneficent results.

Let us for a moment consider the time-honored form of separate, unsalaried boards and State supervising agencies — of the kind General Brinkerhoff had in mind, and spoke approvingly of at Nashville last year. Under such a system the board meets fortnightly, monthly, or quarterly. The members generally draw no salary, in some cases not even their expenses being allowed; and it is unusual for them to perform the labor required, to become familiar with the accounts and the articles purchased, and critically examine all de-

tails of the immediate conduct of the institution. To do all this is a business in itself, takes a great deal of time, and encroaches upon the effort men must give to the pursuit of other ambitions. This is not saying that the best possible management is not sometimes seen under this system; for, out of the hundreds of boards of trustees all over the United States, some are doing excellently,— perhaps better than would be possible under a centralized system. Where, however, there is one board doing its best and reaching a high mark, there are many whose work is perfunctory and inefficient. Here we find local evils, nepotism chargeable to trustees or superintendents, an undue amount of trading with some business friend of a trustee or other officer, and altogether too many purchases made of local merchants, when purchases should be made of wholesale merchants at the commercial centres. Under such conditions the institution maintained at State cost is really a local enterprise, existing for the benefit of the townspeople. Local trustees seldom do anything to disturb the impression that the function of the institution is to serve the immediate community. These are no imaginary evils. Inquire closely into the affairs of the institutions managed by separate boards, and, I care not how vigilant is the supervision of the State Board of Charities, you will find in nine cases out of ten a failure in some important branch of administrative work.

In Wisconsin, long before the passage of the law of 1881, it was generally known that the management of the State institutions was much too expensive, and in some cases grossly inefficient.

At one institution blooded cattle were purchased at fancy prices ($1,000 having been paid for one animal), from which to raise beef; sixty dollars were paid for a dog; curios in the book line and rare pictures were bought at long prices; and in other respects the management was such as to overtax not only the property of the citizen, but his patience as well. As a cure for these evils, the present system was devised.

The State Board of Supervision (which was the first Wisconsin board of control with executive powers) in its reports made comparisons upon a per capita basis between the average expense of maintaining the institutions under its care for the eight years immediately preceding the time it took charge (1881) and for the three, five, and seven years after it assumed control, showing the following results: decrease in expense for first three years, $197,703.54, or

an average per year of $65,901.18; for five years, $377,558.60, or an average per year of $75,511.72; for seven years, $552,080.12, or an average per year of $78,868.57.

The history of investigations of institutions in other States — such, for instance, as the late inquiry into the affairs of a great hospital for the insane in the Empire State — abounds in serious faults that could hardly have existed had an efficient paid board, giving all its time to the work and conversant with all the details of management, been in control.

A consolidated board going from one institution to another constantly, comparing methods and conditions, must, if it be composed of fairly intelligent men, hit upon a plan and regulations for all which will result in a marked saving of money and an increase in efficiency. In no other way can uniformity in business methods for State institutions be secured. Such a board, familiar with pressing necessities where they exist, is able to intelligently recommend to the legislature such appropriations as will be fair and just; and its recommendations will be looked upon with less suspicion than the demands of institution lobbyists who crowd the committee-rooms in advocacy of bills for separate institutions. Under such a system the institution which is represented by the best talkers gets the most money, without reference to the expressed views of a supervisory agency having no executive power. Some sophisticated lobbyist who is dissatisfied with the report of the Board of Charities will argue that the gentlemen who compose it, not being in actual charge of the institution, do not really know its needs, and, if he be clever enough, will get the committee and the legislature to agree with him in this contention.

Economical administration, the use of money so that every dollar expended produces the most possible for the definite object in view, the expenditure of money in such manner as to command the approval of the solid tax-paying element, are among the highest objects to be pursued by all managers of institutions. No injury to the cause of public charity officially administered can be deeper than that which accrues through departures from a common-sense business policy. When the public is able to justly criticise such management as being wasteful, punishment follows swiftly, but unfortunately falls hardest upon the dependent, insane, and criminal classes, for which the institutions exist.

Since the adoption of the centralized system in Wisconsin, there have been no complaints against institution management which have made formal investigations necessary.

Close legislative scrutiny and inspections voluntarily made by able men of college faculties and other students of social science have resulted in nearly uniform approval of the methods pursued. The record is one of which every intelligent citizen of the State is proud. I have no time to go into the matter of comparative statistics of cost and efficiency of institutions in different States, but will say that, so far as I have been able to study reports, I have found no other institutions operating at lower cost or wherein the inmates were better fed and cared for than in Wisconsin.

Wisconsin and Kansas are the only populous States having consolidated executive boards. It has been said that in States having much greater population the idea is impracticable. I do not share this opinion. In my judgment all that is necessary in such States is a board having a greater number of members. If in Wisconsin over 1,000 inspections could have been made in 1894 by the members of a board of six, whose travel aggregated over 150,000 miles, as were the facts, a larger board proportioned to greater labors would have done equally well.

As I understand the matter, the ordinary board of charities is more distinguished for investigations of bad conditions as they have developed than in the work of guarding against the occurrence of evils. Its preventive work is the strength of the Wisconsin Board. It does not simply lock the stable door after the horse is stolen, but makes every effort to keep the steed out of reach of the horse thief.

I am not making a set argument for the executive board idea. What I have said is intended to be merely suggestive. If it lead those having an interest in the subject to investigate for themselves what is being done in the Badger State, not by theorists and doctrinaires and retired capitalists with a dilettante taste for philanthropy, but by men of average endowments, starting early in life as students of social questions and workers in official charities, I shall be satisfied. I am sure that, when they become familiar with our achievements, they will not see changes in legislation in their several States without striving to have incorporated in new legislation some of the points of a centralized system.

I must not take leave of the subject without frankly admitting what my friend Wines has long maintained,— that systems are less important, after all, than men. I would disparage no great result reached in the older States due to the high character and great ability of the workers there. Their contributions to the science of institution management have placed us all under a debt of gratitude. They would make an abundant success of any, the poorest possible, system; but I cannot help thinking they would have been less handicapped in grappling with the many difficulties they have surmounted, had they been officially related to a system like that which has been so satisfactorily worked out in Wisconsin.

IV.

Public and Private Relief.

POVERTY AND ITS RELIEF: THE METHODS POSSIBLE IN THE CITY OF NEW YORK.

BY MRS. C. R. LOWELL.

Wherever any body of Americans interested in the question of poverty and its relief meet together this spring, the first thing they should do is to rejoice. During the winter of 1893–94 we were forced by the emergency to do many things which seemed to us dangerous, and we dreaded to meet in the winter of 1894–95 the evil consequences of our actions; but from all the cities comes the same report,— the evil consequences have not ensued. This means that we did the good we meant to do and did not do the harm we feared we were doing. It means that our earnest desire not to hurt the souls of those in need, while we helped their bodies, was so strong and so genuine that our influence upon them was good; and it may well give us renewed faith both in human nature and in the spirit in which we have tried to do our work. I believe the secret was that we did care more for the souls and characters of the people we tried to help than for their bodies, and that we did therefore treat each one as an individual person; and, even though we had to deal with hundreds, we never *lumped* them and treated them wholesale as a class.

It has been most remarkable that the people, hard pressed as they have been again this winter, have not succumbed to the temptation to turn for help where they got it so freely last year. The secretary of the University Settlement in New York, who himself gave out hundreds of relief-work tickets in 1893 and 1894, and who watched carefully the special relief-work given from the Settlement to the striking cloak-makers this winter, said he found only six of last

year's applicants among the five hundred who came this year. At the Charity Organization Society District Offices, where relief-work tickets were also distributed in 1893 and 1894, there has been this year the same remarkable absence of applications from those who were helped then.

And, as I have said, the account is the same from other sources. To take only three of the largest societies in New York: —

The number of "cases treated" by the United Hebrew Charities during the first three months of the years 1894 and 1895 were as follows: —

	1894.	1895.
January,	3,625	4,447
February,	4,175	3,449
March,	4,592	2,997
	12,392	10,893

The number of applicants to the Association for Improving the Condition of the Poor during the same period were: —

	1894.	1895.
January,	4,797	3,883
February,	5,560	3,539
March,	5,021	2,920
	15,378	10,342

and the number of applicants to the Charity Organization Society: —

	1894.	1895.
January,	5,091	2,559
February,	4,651	2,317
March,	4,005	2,230
	13,747	7,106

Thus, as I have said, we do well to rejoice; for a great danger has been escaped and a great lesson has been learned.

But let me make now a practical application of the lesson learned, and try to sketch the rough outlines of a plan by which, in ordinary times, people in distress may be helped physically without being hurt morally.

To turn to the special field assigned me, New York City, the problem of relief in New York is the same as in other large cities,— how to provide such help as is needed for the people who belong in

the city without attracting to it persons from outside, and how to help effectively such of these last as do come.

The problem would be simple enough if there were only a given number of people in the city suffering from poverty and want, which number could not be increased, and could be decreased by every individual lifted out of misery; but the truth is the exact opposite to this. While the conditions continue which bring people to distress, while the great city attracts from all quarters and corrupts those who come, the suffering and misery will continue, no matter how many are "relieved."

It is not only or chiefly selfishness which should lead every large city to dread an influx of the "homeless and unemployed"; for, in the nature of things, little can be done for them which will not finally be more of an injury than a benefit both to them and to others. The natural attraction of the city is felt not only by the most intelligent and energetic of country men and women, who rightly believe that their chances of rising are infinitely greater in the metropolis than at home, but by the happy-go-lucky, who hope that something will turn up every time they make a change, and by the purely lazy or vicious.

Every "charity," notwithstanding the best efforts of those who conduct them, adds to this attraction; and the result is sad beyond expression.

As Edward Denison said thirty years ago: —

> A prominent characteristic of our social economy, and a main cause of its unsatisfactory condition, is the ignorant rush of population from the villages and smaller towns toward the great industrial centres. . . . It will be objected that, if the people flock to the towns, it is because they find themselves better off there than in the country. But do they? My complaint is that the rush is an ignorant rush, which carries its dupes over the precipice into the gulf of pauperism, of crime, of disease, of starvation, of despair. . . .

The problem is to drain a poisonous marsh into which run streams of pure water to be polluted in its depths. Shall pumps be applied to suck out the poisonous stuff and suck in still larger floods of fresh water to absorb the deadly miasm, and so create an unending task of pumping, or shall the streams be cut off?

Practically, what solution of the problem do I propose?

That the chronically "homeless and unemployed" shall be dealt with almost entirely by a system of public relief, the exception being only made in favor of such private relief agencies as will bind themselves to take sole care, and permanent care, of such individuals as they undertake to deal with at all,— to provide home and work and education and religious teaching for them.

The public relief I advocate would consist of three stages: the first, a decent lodging-place, where cleanliness and strict order and discipline should be enforced, and where, at the discretion of the public authorities, men or women might remain from one to seven days, while arrangements for their permanent disposal could be made; second, a Farm School, where a training lasting from six months to two years should be given to fit its inmates for country work and country life; and, third, what General Booth has called "an asylum for moral idiots," where men and women who have proved themselves incorrigible shall be shut away from harming themselves and others. As General Booth says, "It is a crime against the race to allow those who are so inveterately depraved the freedom to wander abroad, infect their fellows, prey upon society, and multiply their kind."

I fear that to many my scheme of public relief will seem harsh and cruel; but I believe it to be far more kind than any other, both to the unhappy beings themselves, who are now by mistaken leniency lured into a life which surely leads to physical and moral death, and to the community at large.

Having now described what I think public relief should do for the chronically "homeless and unemployed," I must take up the question of how private charity can help others in distress,— really help them, I mean,— help their characters and their souls as well as their bodies.

Three things are necessary: —

1. Knowledge of the facts.
2. Adequate relief for the body.
3. Moral oversight for the soul.

In New York City it seems to me that we have the means of supplying all three, if we would only use them.

We have the Charity Organization Society to supply the knowledge of the facts. We have rich relief societies to supply the adequate relief for the body. We have churches, synagogues, and

devoted private individuals who long to help, to supply the moral oversight of the soul. Besides these positive means of effective work, we are also favorably situated, because we are almost entirely free from the complications of public outdoor relief, which is reduced to a minimum in New York City.

Without indulging in any extravagant fancy, I shall try to draw a picture of what might easily be done with our available forces.

The Charity Organization Society is, of course, one of the last societies established; but it was the natural outgrowth of the charitable effort of the city. All those who were seeking to improve the condition of the poor, and to lift them morally and physically, felt that they must no longer work independently and at cross purposes, but must join themselves together in some representative body, where delegates from all the different benevolent societies should meet and consult and keep constantly in touch with each other. For this reason the Association for Improving the Condition of the Poor, the German Society, the St. Vincent de Paul Society, the Hebrew Benevolent Society, the French Benevolent Society, and many others, upon the suggestion of the State Board of Charities, united to form the Charity Organization Society,—the society to *organize* charity; and representatives from all became members of the Council, and inaugurated a system by which not only the societies which established this new society, but all others in the city, and all churches and individuals, could get reliable knowledge of the facts about every individual whom they wanted to help in any way, thus furnishing a sure foundation upon which to base their plans of help. If thoroughly carried out, this would have three most fortunate effects. It would prevent all "overlapping," since, if the names of all persons applying anywhere for relief were sent in to the Registration Bureau of the Charity Organization Society immediately, no two societies and no two individuals could be helping the same person in ignorance of each other's action; it would prevent deceit on the part of those needing relief, because deceit would be immediately discovered; and it would effect a decided saving of money by the relief societies, partly because all investigation at their own expense would be unnecessary, since the work is done without charge by the Charity Organization Society, and also because they would cease to give relief to those not really needing it.

Through this saving it would be possible for them to give ade-

quate relief in every case; and this is undoubtedly one of the things most needed in any good system of relief, although it is a necessity which is but little recognized in practice, even by those who most loudly advocate the value of relief in theory. Yet can any one really approve of inadequate relief? Can any one really approve of giving fifty cents to a man who must have $5, trusting that some one else will give the $4.50, and knowing that, to get it, the person in distress must spend not only precious strength and time, but more precious independence and self-respect? Is it not a pity that all relief societies give to so many people, and give so little to each? Would it not be far better if each were to concentrate upon a smaller number of persons, and to see that each one of those was really helped, that the relief given to them really *relieved* them?

There are many families in every city who get relief (only a little to be sure, but enough to do harm) who ought never to have one cent,— families where the man can work, but will not work. The little given out of pity for his poor wife and children really intensifies and prolongs their suffering, and often prevents the man from doing his duty by making him believe that, if he does not take care of them, some one else will. On the other hand, there are many families who ought to have their whole support given them for a few years,— widows, for instance, who cannot both take care of and support their children, and yet who ought not to have to give them up into the blighting care of an institution; and these families get nothing, or get so little that it does them no good at all, only serving to keep them also in misery and to raise false hopes, or else to teach them to beg to make up what they must have.

Ought not charitable people to manage in some way to remedy these two opposite evils? — to do more for those who should have more, and to do nothing for those who should have nothing, saving money by discriminating, and thus having enough to give adequate relief in all cases.

The knowledge which the Charity Organization Society can give would help societies and churches to distinguish more carefully than they do now between the people who should not have any relief at all and those who should have a great deal.

All relief-giving, however, is such an unnatural way of remedying the evils from which our fellow-creatures suffer that, even when it

is necessary, as it too often is, it tends to pervert and injure the character of those who receive it. Therefore, in order to make it as little dangerous as possible, moral care must always go with it. Even the widow with the little children, if she finds that everything is made easy for her, may lose her energy, may even, by being relieved of anxiety for them, lose her love for her children; and the children themselves, growing up without feeling the necessity of exerting themselves, may be ruined. Therefore, a watchful friend must always be on hand to see that these evils do not follow upon the receipt of the physical help which must be given; and this friend ought logically to come from one of the religious bodies, and ought to have a special training to prepare him or her for this work of moral oversight. Already in some churches in New York there are bodies of visitors who receive such training. There are also small bodies of visitors in the various districts into which the Charity Organization Society has divided the city; but these bodies of visitors are far too small, and the districts are far too large.

BOSTON MEDICAL LIBRARY AUG 29 1910

Instead of eleven district committees there should be forty local centres, whether established by the Charity Organization Society or otherwise it matters very little; but in each of these local centres committees should be formed, and here delegates from all the local charities and from churches should meet each week or oftener to consult together, not only as to the welfare of the whole of their respective districts (seeking always to make the work of the various societies and churches as effective as possible by thorough co-operation), but also to consider and consult as to the best means of helping any person or family in distress who had applied for help or about whom any one came to ask advice. To these meetings should also come any individual who is especially interested in trying to help and raise families of "unworthy" and shiftless and disreputable character; and they should receive such advice and assistance as the members of the committees, from their study of such matters, ought to be exceptionally competent to give. Thus, in the case of a person applying to any church society for assistance, the regular course pursued should be as follows: First, all the particulars known should be sent to the Charity Organization Society, and a thorough investigation requested. Then, upon receiving all the information as to the person concerned that could be supplied in this way, if it were found that no one had the care of the family, the church should

appoint an especially intelligent and sympathetic man or woman to take the moral oversight; and he should at once go to the district committee meeting nearest to his own house, lay the facts before the committee, and ask their advice and help. If physical relief were required, the best source from which to obtain it would be pointed out; and, in any event, the visitor would at least have the advantage of talking over the possible ways of helping, and would get encouragement from the experience of persons who were constantly considering the needs of just such families.

In regard to physical relief to able-bodied men and women the experience of 1893–94 would seem to show that, while relief-work as a regular annual means of giving relief would probably be very bad for the community as a whole by encouraging the less efficient and energetic workers to depend on it, yet its influence on the character of the individual may be good, and, if very carefully guarded, it may be the best means of giving such relief as is absolutely necessary and inevitable.

But I do not wish to be supposed to be presenting an ideal relief system. There is no ideal system of relief. For relief-giving by system is an evil; and even though a necessary evil, as at the present stage of our social development it seems to be, yet the only ideal in connection with it is that it may in time render itself or be rendered unnecessary. I think no one yet knows how this can be done; but the means by which we shall reach the knowledge of how to do it I believe to be evident, and that is by the patient and careful study, by educated men and women who go to live as neighbors of the poor workers in the crowded parts of the city, of the actual people who must be helped and of the conditions that must be changed.

The fact that such educated neighbors can do a great deal to make those around them happier and better is self-evident; for, however wonderfully the overruling and omnipotent "Power that makes for Righteousness" may turn what seem to us fatal surroundings into a means of grace to the human soul, yet there are many ways in which those who have had larger opportunities can bring pleasure and beauty to the toilers in swarming tenement houses. In the daily intercourse with the children, with the boys and girls, and with the young men and women, much can be done to awaken nobler ambitions and create higher ideals. But, impor-

tant as this personal work is, I do not think it the most important work to be done. The chief value, to my mind, of the colonizing of the more highly educated and, from a worldly standpoint, more favored individuals among those who live in densely crowded neighborhoods, and work hard for a good part of every twenty-four hours, is that they come to know them, to know their lives and to know their needs, and can report them to the people who have the power to supply what is needed.

Experts are required now in every field. Most people have not time to attend to more than their own immediate surroundings and business. So many things press for attention that much which is of the greatest importance is pushed aside, and therefore it is necessary that each part of the public weal should be especially studied by those who devote themselves to personal observation and the collection of facts; and such students and collectors of facts in sociology are, or ought to be, the men and women who take up their residence among the "plain people," as Lincoln called them, and observe their daily life near at hand and all day long and every day.

The reason "charity" (so called, although it is sad to degrade a beautiful word) is so often discredited, and more often so discreditable, is that it has usually worked without any knowledge of this daily life.

It has kept out of the way of it, and has tried in a feeble and ineffectual manner to deal with the broken fragments, the failures, thrown out by it. When men and women have broken down because of long hours of overwork and horribly bad surroundings to work in, "charity" has put them into hospitals, and has either never thought or said anything about the causes of the break-down, or it has complacently remarked that "it was a pity that such conditions were necessary for business reasons."

When "charity" has found men and women drunken and shiftless and unable to care for their children, "charity" has taken their children away from them, and has said, "That's the way poor people are"; but it has not asked why they were so or tried to prevent their being so.

When girls have gone wrong and boys have stolen, "charity" has provided Refuges for the girls and has put the boys into prison, and has talked as if such ruin of lives, and what looks like ruin of souls, were inevitable, never even wondering what other outlet for the

natural love of pleasure and adventure, so carefully provided for in the case of other boys and girls, there was for these boys and girls.

Now, that is all changed or is changing; and it is, I believe, because men and women are learning the actual life of the mass of workers who do not break down, but who only die; who are not drunken and shiftless, but who lead lives of such heroic self-sacrifice and devotion as we cannot lead because the demand is not made on us; and of the lives of the boys and girls, who grow up brave and pure through and in the midst of circumstances which, as I have said, seem to us fatal.

But, notwithstanding all the virtues and all the heroism of the mass of the people, they do need and ought to have a great many things they do not have, and the whole community ought to help them to get them; but the first step toward helping them to get them is to know exactly what they need, and this knowledge the "residents" in college settlements and the individual residents in tenement houses must get for us. They must report the neglect of the city government to do its duty, whether as street-cleaners, as police, or as educator. They must report the oppression of employers, whether the oppression be the result of individual carelessness or, as is often the case, the result of trade conditions. They must cry aloud for more air, more space, for a larger and better life in every way for the great masses of men and women in our cities.

Not only does self-interest require that we help to lift our fellow-men, to make them useful citizens, law-abiding, and industrious, but no one can escape the responsibility for the intellectual and moral development of the race. As Drummond says, "the directing of part of the course of evolution" has passed into the hands of man. "A spectator of the drama for ages, too ignorant to know that it was a drama, and too impotent to do more than play his little part, . . . Nature meant him to become a partner in her task, and share the responsibility of the closing acts. It is not given him as yet to bind the sweet influences of the Pleiades or to unloose the bands of Orion. In part only can he make the winds and the waves obey him or control the falling rain. . . . But in a far grander sphere and in an infinitely profounder sense has the sovereignty passed to him. For he finds himself the guardian and the arbiter of his personal destiny and of that of his fellow-men. The moulding of his life and of that of his children's children in measure lies

with him. . . . He shapes the path of progress for his country and his time. The evils of the world are combated by his remedies, its passions are stayed, its wrongs redressed, its energies for good or evil directed by his hand. For unnumbered millions he opens or shuts the gates of happiness, and paves the way for misery or social health. Never before was it known and felt with the same solemn certainty that man . . . must be his own maker and the maker of the world."

THE BEST METHOD OF RELIEF IN SMALL CITIES.

BY REV. JOHN C. BROOKS, SPRINGFIELD, MASS.

The question assigned me to consider to-night assumes that there is need of relief in small cities, and yet that the method of giving it, either from the character of the relief required or from the means at hand to administer it, is likely to be different from that found best to be pursued in larger cities.

Our study, then, shall be first of the field, and next of the instruments available for the work to be done; and then, if we can come to see the most harmonious and effective bringing together of these two, we may hope to arrive somewhere near the best method of relief thus far found.

What, then, are generally the nature and condition of the persons who need relief in our small cities? They are about equally divided between the native American and the foreign born.

Those belonging to the former class are either natives of the neighboring country towns, where absence of any means of steady employment has prevented the acquirement of one settled trade early in life, and induced habits of shiftlessness, and at last driven them to the cities, or they are those who have lived so long, even from their childhood, in the same city that they are discouraged amid their old surroundings, and have lost their own confidence and that of their old acquaintances of more prosperous condition.

The foreign element is in many cases more promising than these, only those who are capable and of industrious disposition generally

having the energy or desire to settle in one of our smaller cities. And among all classes in such intimately associated and thrifty communities we do not find abject poverty and squalor nor degraded ignorance, except in sporadic cases. What might be called slums find little cause to exist in such cities, where there is room enough yet for growth and healthy expansion, and where the poor can find enough of fresh air and sunlight. The only serious reminder of hopeless poverty is to be found in the constant presence of the tramp, by far the most serious and subtle evil influence with which such cities have to deal, introducing into every community physical and moral contamination, the effects of which we can never fully know, and then, as quickly and mysteriously as he comes, passing out of all reach of locally organized charitable work.

To linger no longer in study of the field, I would impress upon you, if I may, the hopeful and high character of the work to be done there. Not in most cases is the struggle to keep body and soul together that which calls for our aid, as in so many of the larger cities, but the further elevation and development of minds and souls which are waiting to be developed in the ways of good citizenship and healthy home life.

What, now, are the instrumentalities at our command for this work? We have in one of our small cities a community with a comparatively short experience in the official administration of municipal charities, very probably with traditional ideas left over from its village and town stage of existence still clinging to it. We are likely, also, to find a large proportion of the citizens with limited means to bestow in charities, and many of those able to give with a deep-rooted prejudice against any systematic investigation of the causes of want in individual cases from a very natural attachment to the habits of open-handed neighborly sharing of a simpler time, when every one knew and trusted every one else. Add to this the strong feeling apt to exist in the various local churches and associations in regard to their own province and methods, and we have some at least of the drawbacks to be found.

Yet from the very same causes from which these disadvantages spring come corresponding advantages of great value. The comparative simplicity of life and freedom from absorption in many things; the pureness of the administration of the city's affairs; the more general and personal acquaintance of citizens one with

another, and one class with another; the fuller knowledge possible to be obtained of lineage and family traits and character; and, lastly, the absence of the vast and well-nigh insoluble problems which baffle and discourage larger communities,— these are most helpful factors in the work of relief in our small cities.

Finally, we come to inquire as to the best method of applying these various public and private charitable forces to the needs of the town.

Professor F. G. Peabody has aptly said in this connection words which we shall do well to remember: "The problem of charity demands two elements, each perfectly distinct and each absolutely essential. One element is the *method* of charity: the other is its *motive*. The method must be the method of business. It must not conflict with economic principles. It must conform to them, and re-enforce them. The motive, on the other hand, must be that of ethics,— the same sense of brotherhood which once satisfied itself in almsgiving, precisely as active in its influence, but disciplined in its use." It would be both presumptuous and unprofitable for one to offer arguments here to-night as to what might seem to him to be theoretically the best method of relief in the case we are considering.

The best method is that which is the most effective and the most feasible, and that method can only be found by experience. Therefore, I am here only to do what the work of all this Convention — rightly called a Conference — is intended to do,— bring together, as best I may, for your consideration, examples of the way in which each of us in our own little corner, and amid our own circumstances, has answered the question.

The method of relief falls into the two departments of organization and relief work. At first it would seem as if the mere formation of the societies had very little, if anything, to do with the relief to be given, and that one might adopt one form of organization and one another, and yet their work be the same. But in the name now generally adopted, that of "Charity Organization Society," we find the recognition of the need of a preliminary work to be done by the society within itself before it enters on relief work. To quote from Mr. A. G. Warner's valuable book on American Charities: "It should be observed that the charity organizationist, properly so called, is essentially a man who will not consent to be buried under details.

Neither the work of friendly visiting nor the pushing of penny provident schemes, nor the operation of a wood-yard, and, most of all, not the giving of relief, will he allow to distract him from a survey of the whole field, and from the endeavor to improve by better co-ordination the charitable efforts of the community. He is determined that the field shall be covered with some measure of adequacy, and that charitable forces shall not be wasted in competitive and misdirected efforts." This co-ordinating of the various departments of moral effort is admirably illustrated in the case of the local society here in New Haven, its board of directors being composed of representatives of the New Haven Aid Society, United Workers, New Haven Orphan Asylum, Young Women's Christian Association, Leila Day Nursery, Home for Friendless, Hebrew Benevolent Society, the German Society, New Haven Hospital, the Dispensary, the town police department, city courts, churches, and the community at large. In such a combined force as this, surely, the work which the society at Lawrence, Mass., declares that charity should do should be thoroughly and intelligently done,—"Investigate, relieve promptly, permit nowise alms to the unworthy, raise into independence, save children from pauperism." But, for a fuller example still of this method of organization, Denver stands conspicuous among our smaller cities, and seems thus far to have answered our question the most satisfactorily of us all. The society reports fifteen benevolent societies co-operating with and also receiving appropriations from the Charity Organization Society. The list is an instructive one; namely, Day Nursery, Ladies' Relief Association, Denver Orphans' Home, Denver Flower Mission, Tabernacle Free Dispensary, Homœopathic Free Dispensary, Temporary Home for Friendless Children, North Denver Ladies' Relief Society, Hebrew Ladies' Benevolent Society, St. Vincent's Orphan Asylum, St. Vincent de Paul Society, House of Good Shepherd, St. Joseph's Hospital, Colorado Humane Society, and St. Luke's Hospital; also, as "honorary members," the mayor, ministers, chairman Board of County Commissioners, sheriff of county, chief of police, president of State Board of Charities, chairman of Health Board, and county and city physicians. It has a weekly conference, and boasts of a complete circle of charities. It spent $20,648.09 in 1892–93, of which $3,600 was at the Central Office. Its receipts from the city were $9,999.96, and from subscribers $10,524. The trustees of the

charity fund are empowered to have charge of all collections and distributions of the funds subscribed to the organizations which co-operate with the society, appoint sub-committees, and employ such persons as they may deem necessary for the collection and distribution of the funds subscribed, and shall have power to make such annual distributions of the funds which come in their possession as in their judgment they may deem wise and proper for the benefit of the organization. They also receive annually a complete exhibit of the receipts and disbursements of each co-operating society, and have power to ask for a report at any time. Two additional things are worthy of note: that this society, although so completely co-operative, yet finds it needful to employ a relief fund of its own, and also that it is in close touch with the city officials. On this last point the mayor of Denver says: "The society saves city officials a vast amount of money, as it investigates cases we could not. We rely so much on the society that I do not see how it could possibly be dispensed with."

To pass now from this interesting object-lesson of what we may call the best method of organization for relief where it may be possible in any degree to attain it, let us consider finally the work which outside of that of co-operating societies the Charity Organization Society may best do in the care of the poor. It is of wide range and most inspiring character as we read of it in the reports of the various cities. It is at one time bent on removing conditions which may produce poverty and crime, at another intended to punish the wrong-doer and protect the innocent and suffering, at still another it is comforting the sick and educating and guarding the characters of the young. When all is good, who can say what is best? The whole list of wonderfully wise ways which our men and women are taking of raising and blessing their fellows in this glorious century of ours is, as a grand whole, the record of what we want to know, the best method of relief. I find nothing to omit and nothing to choose. Like all life, each part taken alone is petty, but all together is great and divine. Some things in it we already know of, others we need to know of. I will give them to you just as I have found them in each city's earnest work, trusting to your thoughts to interpret their value to you.

Fitchburg has a loan closet and a department for repairing and selling of half-worn clothing, also a system of sending plain work

to the homes of the women. There is also instruction given in home nursing. An auxiliary committee has also been formed, composed of men from the various shops in whom the employers and the employees have confidence, who shall be representatives of the society in their respective places of work. An intereresting connection with the overseers of the poor has been formed. All new applicants for aid, with a residence in the city, are referred by them to the society; and, if slight aid has been given by the city, the society pays the bill, and the man's name is stricken from the pauper list. By this means about one hundred families have been saved from becoming paupers.

In Syracuse, N.Y., we find a desire for a pawn-brokers' association, there being loans of from $10 to $50 at 150 per cent. interest.

Newburg, N.Y., has a library of reference, a fund for supplying milk and delicacies to the sick, and lectures on first aid to the injured.

Orange, N.J., maintains night lodging-houses, with tickets at ten cents each; also free kindergartens, a coal club, a work and sales committee, kitchen school, and sewing school.

Denver has an employment bureau and a visiting nurse.

Wilmington, Del., has a wood-yard, a clean towel supply, a self-supporting fund, a penny provident fund, country week, sick-diet kitchen, fuel savings fund, and woman's library.

Plainfield, N.J., carries on a mothers' class.

Springfield has a rag-carpet industry, and has just procured loans of pieces of land for cultivation by the poor.

Pittsfield has a standing committee of men and women to procure employment. Newport gives bulbs and seeds. Thus far have methods suggested themselves as the work has developed. But there are two evils yet to be remedied, for which methods of relief have not yet been found. One is the old familiar one of drink, the short sentences with which now it is punished leaving but short intervals for the repairing and elevation of the drunkard's family. The other evil is idleness, to which the whole system of outdoor relief contributes steadily, so long as it exacts no labor in return for the aid given.

This method of relief which we find here existing in our small cities, with its close investigation and yet sympathetic care and friendly visiting, is, to my mind, not to be considered merely as the

best method under the circumstances, but inherently so. Not that it is perfect, as some day it may come to be, but its principles and its spirit are right. It is a happy medium between the past and the future of the city's life. It is protecting it in its dangers of rapid growth, while it is perpetuating all that was best in its village neighborliness of old days. It must grow, as are the duty and right of everything which lives; but it has not to be superseded by something better. It will hold its own as the city grows, and questions its usefulness more and more. But one thing it must do. As one worker has well said, "We have not done enough to improve the quality of this life we are guarding so carefully." It must struggle persistently to get above the material, and see the soul in every man. That is the one peril of a method anywhere, and especially is it dangerous to use method in dealing with our fellow-men. That is where the rebellion of our critics, both among the poor and the rich, starts,— in the instinctive shrinking of the soul from method. We need our brother's warning constantly, and let us remember always the quality of life more than quantity. "It is an easy matter," says some one, "to minister to physical wants; but to re-create a person, to restore lost manhood and womanhood, is a labor of love that requires patience, wisdom, courage, nerve." Carlyle tells us of "the gift of life which a man can have but once; for he waited for a whole eternity to be born, and now has a whole eternity waiting to see what he will do when born." We must teach man always the aspiration of Browning, that flesh may help the soul:—

"Let us not always say,
'Spirit, of this flesh to-day
I strove, made head, gained
Ground upon the whole!'
As the bird wings and sings,
Let us cry, 'All good things
Are ours, nor soul helps
Flesh more now than
Flesh helps soul!'"

OUTDOOR PUBLIC RELIEF IN MASSACHUSETTS.

BY THOMAS F. RING,

PRESIDENT OF THE PARTICULAR COUNCIL OF THE ST. VINCENT DE PAUL SOCIETY, BOSTON.

Public relief of the poor in Massachusetts is a duty placed upon a board in each city and town, known as the overseers of the poor. Except in the city of Boston the overseers have also charge of the almshouses.

Outdoor public relief is mandatory. The law provides that the overseers *shall* relieve all poor in their cities and towns who stand in need of such relief. The extent, nature, and duration of the assistance depend on the particular circumstances of the applicant. If he has a settlement in the town in which he lives, the cost of partial support is charged to the appropriation for the town's poor. If he has a settlement in one town, but lives in another in the State, the town in which he lives will give the aid, charging the cost to the town in which he holds a settlement, at the same time notifying the latter town or city. If the applicant has no settlement in any city or town in the Commonwealth, temporary aid may be given by the town overseers, the cost being charged to the State, notice being sent to the State Board of Charity. The State Board will allow a limited amount to be expended in outdoor aid, but reserves the right to order it stopped and to direct the transfer of the applicant to some State almshouse at any time.

To cover the case of temporary as given once to some needy person passing through the city, the Boston overseers have allowed the payment of small amounts at the discretion of the secretary of the Board. Within this list all the outdoor poor are comprised.

We have, then, to deal with a long-standing custom, sanctioned by law and supported at the cost of the public purse, in considering outdoor public relief. If honestly and carefully administered, I am decidedly in favor of continuing it as it is done in Boston, and, as far as I am aware, in the State of Massachusetts. I know something of the practical workings of outdoor public relief in Boston, having served nearly nine years on the Board of Overseers. For thirty years I have been a worker in the St. Vincent de Paul Society in Boston,

and know something of private outdoor relief and of the necessary relations between the dispensers of public outdoor relief and the almoners of private relief.

As far as I can remember, when a city has abolished public outdoor relief, the cause is more in the dishonesty of the officials than in the giving of the aid itself. We have not been entirely free from trouble on this score in Boston. When the overseers were elected by ballot at the polls, each ward electing its own overseer, there was sharp competition among the grocers in some wards as to the one to whom should be assigned the tender and beautiful duty of giving aid to the needy in that section. The more he gave out, the more charitable he was considered, and in some cases the more profitable it was to himself. Now the mayor nominates and the aldermen confirm four citizens each year, to serve three years. Two women are on the Board, and are among its most useful members. The overseers serve without pay. The office staff of clerks and visitors of course are paid. The office is open daily, except Sunday, the whole year through. Every person asking for aid is given prompt and careful attention, whether the applicant comes in person or makes his appeal through another, the visitors going to the homes of the poor to better judge, by personal observation and inquiry, of their actual needs.

Some of our local charity societies suspend operations during the warm weather, many of our benevolent individuals are absent in the country, or some other country, for the summer; but the overseers are always at hand. Aid, as a rule, is given in groceries from the storehouse of the Board, insuring against abuse of an order on a grocer. Applicants living within a reasonable distance of the storehouse, and able to carry the supplies, call for them at the storehouse. Those living at a considerable distance receive their allowance by express, the cost of carriage being paid by the Board. Grants in money are given, when the aid in food or fuel will not serve so well. Shoes or clothing are not distributed by the Board.

For burial expenses the Board paid in 1894 over four thousand dollars. The efficiency of the Board's service depends on the intelligence and devoted energy of the office staff. One great advantage in the public service of the outdoor poor is, undoubtedly, in the training of the visitors, who have become admirably fitted for their duty by years of constant practice under the eyes of the overseers, as

well as of the secretary of the Board, who is a salaried man, always in the office.

Reports of the visitors made up for each individual are carefully and impartially prepared. The visitor bases his opinion on the merits of the application, on the legal rights, and the actual proved needs of the applicant. Pending investigation, aid is not withheld, but given at once, and, until definitely passed on, is marked "Probably city" or "Probably State," as may seem to be the case. The visitor has no concern with the nationality or the religion of the person asking for aid.

I say now, as my deliberate opinion, that, while the outdoor poor of the city of Boston are served by as honest and capable a set of public-spirited men and women as are doing the work to-day, there will be no occasion to disband the Board or to abandon outdoor relief through public channels.

In cases of unusual emergency the Board has not hesitated for one hour to place itself in the front of the conflict and to put its whole strength in instant play. An inundation of part of our city filled the streets with water to the height of ten feet, so that the lower stories in some places were submerged. A thousand families in this way were in want of immediate supplies of food and fuel. The Board at once put all its visitors, familiar with the district, at work, employed temporary help, and sent boats through the streets with needed supplies to all who required them. The local charitable organizations fell into line, and, under the general direction of the overseers, worked for a week or more, until the danger had passed. Last year a fire swept through a district full of wooden houses occupied by our humbler people. The same organization that went through the flood to their relief now went through the fire, the local charities co-operating until the emergency was over. With us there is no rivalry between public agency for outdoor relief and private agencies. We have come, by association, to know there is a field for each, though the same field may at times be occupied in common, to the increased advantage of the poor, whom both serve. I have found on the part of the paid public visitor in our city as true and tender a regard for the feelings of the poor as I find in the average of the volunteer visitors, and, taken man for man, the trained public visitor is a more judicious and wiser helper than the average volunteer visitor, whose zeal is greater than his experience.

Long training and hard experience are needed to properly fit any one to do good visiting among our poor, whether the visitor works for salary or from love only. Though our overseers are not paid, they give much time and thought to the duties of their office. Any complaint, however trifling it may at first appear, is at once and carefully investigated. It would not be safe for any officer to disregard the warning his first offence would bring on him.

The same Board has charge of the Temporary Home for Women and Children, and the Wayfarer's Lodge for Men. It has charge of trust funds amounting to $700,000, placed in its hands as a corporation, for distinct purposes in relief-work. The Board is not a stepping-stone to political advancement, and its traditions are all against jobbery or junketing. Membership means hard work, many cares, and small thanks.

As to co-operation in charitable work in Boston, the public and most of the private charities are centred in the Charity Building. Co-operation has grown out of neighborhood and pleasant personal relations between officers of the various societies and the public officers. No prescribed lines are set. Each calls on the other as it may have need. A reciprocity of interests has established a sort of communion of thoughts and works.

The Provident Association gives clothes and shoes and other aid to help out the overseers and the other societies. The Associated Charities are busy among all, going to one or the other as there may be occasion. The St. Vincent de Paul Society has two paid agents in its office in the Charity Building, acting in co-operation with public and private charities whenever there is need for it. The Industrial Aid finds employment for persons sent in from other societies. So, without any printed schedule, the various charities, public and private, have reached a way of working together; and, as time goes on, and they know more of each other, co-operation will become more frequent and effective.

In saying that public outdoor relief, as administered by the overseers of the poor in Boston, is honestly and efficiently managed, I do not wish to be understood as claiming public outdoor relief through municipal or State officials to be the best method of dispensing this form of aid. To my mind the best method is found in the personal friendship of wise and competent private individuals, who give their own time as well as their own money, when needed, to the man or

woman struggling in the toils of distress. When our Lord said that the love of our neighbor is next to the love of God, he gave to each of us a mission to the needy. "Go, thou, and do likewise," is not a mere counsel or suggestion: it is a command; and in the Great Day each of us must stand alone, face to face with the Judge, and must answer him how we have kept, or how we have neglected, his command in this respect.

At the head of all forms of material relief I place personal visitation to the distressed. In the home of the poor, and not in our own home nor in our office, but under the roof of the poor man's house, let us work out our mission to the poor. Here in private we may see the print of the nails that have wounded his life. Here we lift from his head the crown of thorns that tortures and blinds him. Here let us give our brother our best counsel, our love, and, when needed, what material aid we can of ourselves bestow or procure for him.

Man does not live by bread alone. Friendship, sympathy, strength, and fresh hope we can freely give, and be none the poorer, but the richer, for giving.

But personal service, though the best, has its limitations. One cannot, in justice to himself or to other duties, always visit nor always give. Hence association with kindred spirits in charitable societies becomes a necessity to most of us. Each can contribute some of his time, his money, or his counsel for the common good of the whole; and this accumulation goes out to the poor as the offering of each one.

Saint Thomas says, "Charity, chief of the virtues, ceases to be even a virtue, when wise order is missing from it." Probably none are better qualified to heartily indorse this saying of the angelic doctor than this Conference of Charities. The very purpose of this Conference is to study the needs of the poor and to suggest the wisest methods of dealing with them. Each one who speaks here adds his mite to the common stock of information. He does more than that: he gives to every worker in the cause of charity renewed strength in the thought that he is not working alone. To rescue a boy or girl from a life of vice and misery is to add to the happy homes of our country, to raise up a good citizen, to give another good woman as a crown and a blessing to a fireside. Think of their children stretching out into generations of good men and good

women! Who can measure the gain to our country? No one but God, the common Father of us all. It is in meetings like this that the seed of great good is sown. Some of us may highly resolve to devote more of our life to active charity than before, and in such meetings as this the way to do good work is made clear to us.

Members of the Conference of Charities, who from all over this fair land of ours have come to counsel and encourage one another in the cause of our delinquent, our dependent, and defective fellow-beings, you who voluntarily have become as eyes for them who are blind, who speak for some who cannot speak for themselves, who aim to be a strength to the weak, a shield against those who would oppress them, to you I express the earnest wish that the widening spirit of brotherly love may yearly add to your numbers and increase your strength. May the wisdom of your counsel become so apparent that your influence for good shall be felt from ocean to ocean, affecting public as well as private action in all that relates to the complex problems of charity and correction!

I am grateful that an opportunity has been given me to take even a small part in the meeting, and shall go home to my own work the stronger and better for personal contact with the members of the National Conference of Charities.

PUBLIC AND PRIVATE RELIEF IN CHICAGO.

THE BEST PROGRAM FOR FUTURE RELIEF.

BY REV. C. G. TRUSDELL, D.D.

We limit public relief in Chicago to the arrangements made by the county commissioners for the care of the poor. I do not say paupers, for I do not like the word as applied to poor people generally. The term "poor" may include paupers and sometimes criminals, but the great proportion of the poor people in Chicago are neither criminals nor paupers. I do not believe that the number of those who permanently and willingly depend upon charity, or who seek to live by fraud and indolence, is as one to ten of the whole number of the

respectable unfortunate poor, who are usually self-supporting, and who always make the best effort at self-support of which they are capable. They ask for temporary aid only in extraordinary emergencies; and, when the emergency is past, they leave the ranks of the dependent and become again self-supporting.

The county provides both indoor and outdoor relief,— indoor for those who can be better treated in institutions, and outdoor for those who can be better treated at their homes.

The following institutions are connected with the system of indoor relief; namely, a general hospital, an infirmary for chronic invalids and incurables, a hospital for the insane, another for contagious diseases, and an almshouse for the aged and permanently dependent who are neither sick nor insane. The capacity of all these institutions is, in round numbers, four thousand. They are all generally full, except the almshouse in summer. They carry a total of about five hundred names on their pay-rolls. How many are actually employed I do not undertake to say.

The cost of grounds, buildings, and furnishings for these institutions is not far from $3,000,000. The total cost of operating them is $700,000 per annum.

Public outdoor relief is administered through an officer known as the county agent and appointed by the county commissioners. He has an office and storehouse near the centre of the city, with a corps of clerks, book-keepers, and visitors, together with a number of physicians who attend to the sick poor. This county agent issues provisions, fuel, and shoes, also gives orders on the county undertaker for interment, and in special cases furnishes transportation. He gives no money, bedding, or clothing, under any circumstances.

The general monthly allowance of outdoor relief for one family is a 25-lb. sack of flour, five pounds of corn beef, five pounds of beans, three of rice, five of oatmeal, one-half of coffee and tea, one bar of soap, and, in the winter, one-half ton of soft coal. The allowance is proportioned to the number of persons in the family and the measure of disability, large families receiving twice this ration.

The appropriation to the county agent's office generally averages $100,000 per annum for supplies and $25,000 for expenses. This, I think, covers all that is technically embraced in public relief in Chicago.

In the "Directory of Chicago Charities," published last year by

the secretary of the Illinois Conference of Charities and Correction, there are enumerated two hundred private charitable institutions and societies, exclusive of churches. This enumeration includes hospitals, dispensaries, homes for the friendless, the aged, incurables, crippled children, asylums, refuges, reformatories, training schools, missions, kindergartens, crèches, university settlements, and special relief societies of the different fraternities and nationalities.

The name of the society or institution generally defines its nature and limitations, so that there is little, if any, danger of duplication.

The only general relief society, which undertakes to administer relief to all deserving needy persons for whom no other provision is made, is the Chicago Relief and Aid Society.

This society is entirely free from political or sectarian control, and in the administration of its charity makes no distinction as to nationality, color, or creed. It aims to do promptly and adequately whatever seems absolutely necessary in any given case to prevent or to relieve distress. It does not handle supplies of food or fuel, but gives money, bedding, clothing, and shoes.

It owns large privileges in the various private hospitals, in the Home for the Friendless, and the Old People's Home, on account of having advanced to them large sums of money; and, through these institutions, the society accomplishes a vast amount of work.

The objects and methods of this society are briefly outlined in its special charter, granted by the State of Illinois in 1857, also in its constitution and by-laws, and in its general rules and rules for visitors. Section 2 of its charter reads as follows: —

Section 2.— The objects of this corporation shall be strictly of an eleemosynary nature. They shall be to provide a permanent, efficient, and practical mode of administering and distributing the private charities of the city of Chicago; to examine and establish the necessary means for obtaining full and reliable information of the condition and wants of the poor of said city, and putting into practical and efficient operation the best system of relieving and preventing want and pauperism therein.

Section 1 of the Constitution is as follows: —

1. In carrying out the objects of this society as indicated in the act of incorporation, it shall be the end aimed at, not only to afford temporary relief to the destitute, but also, by rendering timely counsel and assistance to deserving but indigent persons, to place them

above the necessity of aid; and, without positively limiting itself to any one class in the distribution of its charities, the society shall discriminate in favor of those in whom habits of temperance, industry, and thrift give promise of permanent benefit from the aid furnished, and shall not embrace in the sphere of its operations such as are the proper subjects for the poorhouse or for the action of the county officers.

By-law No. 13 provides that "there shall be a Committee on Hospitals and Homes, consisting of three members, which shall have charge of the relations of this society to the various hospitals and homes of the city as have received endowment appropriations from this society."

By-law No. 15. A Committee on Co-operation, consisting of three members, whose duty it shall be to maintain and strengthen friendly relations between this and other charitable societies, associations, or agencies, local and in other cities, with a view to promoting the largest efficiency and usefulness of this society.

From the general rules and rules for visitors: —

Each applicant for relief is entitled to charity until a careful examination proves the contrary.

Relief is to be given only after a personal investigation of each case by visitation and inquiry by the superintendent or authorized visitor.

Relief to be discontinued to those who manifest a purpose to depend on alms rather than their own exertions for support.

Able-bodied men are not regarded as proper subjects for relief, but will be furnished employment directly by the superintendent or sent to reliable employment agents, with whom the society co-operates.

Applicants having claims on other charities are to be furnished with a card directing them to the same.

It is an absolute condition of relief by this society that all persons receiving aid are not to ask alms or assistance of the public, either on the street, at residences, or places of business.

In all cases where families or persons, on account of want of employment, have been aided by this Society through a winter, and are by us offered situations, either in the city or country, adapted to their condition in life, with aid to reach such situations, which they refuse to accept, no further relief shall be extended to them.

This society operates two wood-yards. It has not, within the last twenty years, refused any sober, single, able-bodied man an opportunity to earn board and lodging for a limited time, by working four or five hours a day, leaving him the rest of the time wherein to find

other more permanent employment. The society furnishes work for men with families, paying them every night in cash. Some earn $1.50 a day; others are content to earn 80 cents, 60 cents, and some not more than 20 cents. But many, both married and single, indignantly decline work altogether.

The wood-yards are nearly self-supporting. Last year was an exceptionally hard year in Chicago on account of scarcity of work and of the large number of men attracted to the World's Fair who preferred to remain and take the chances in Chicago rather than return to their former homes or to go elsewhere. The wood-yards were run that year at a loss of about $10,000.

The foregoing pretty fairly and fully represents the system of relief in Chicago in ordinary times.

In times of depression or of special emergencies, as, for example, in 1874–75 or in 1893–94, when the country was passing through a grave financial and industrial crisis, the resources of all charitable societies were taxed to their utmost. It would not have been so difficult to meet all reasonable demands, had it not been for the unwarranted excitement created by certain alarmists and sensation-mongers who exaggerated the number and sufferings of the unemployed.

Early in September, 1893, several weeks before the World's Fair closed, a cry was raised that one hundred thousand men were out of employment in Chicago, and that the families of many of them were upon the verge of starvation. It was proposed to raise one million dollars for relief. A house to house canvass was made, and the real state of the case disclosed. It was found that no such distress existed. There were a great many idle men in Chicago, principally strangers and adventurers. A large number of resident mechanics and laborers had been thrown out of work by the completion of the World's Fair Buildings. But it was midsummer, and no unusual degree of suffering was apparent. The proposition to raise one million dollars for relief for the coming winter no doubt confirmed many in their purpose to remain, and brought many others to Chicago to share in the distribution.

This proposition to raise a large sum, and to inaugurate measures for relief on a gigantic scale, failed because the necessity for so doing was not apparent. A few months later a Citizens' Relief Association was organized, mainly for the purpose of furnishing work for unemployed men. When rooms were opened, under the auspices

of this association, to supply food and shelter, an enumeration was made, and the estimated 100,000 shrank to 20,000. As soon as it was clearly established that work was to be the condition of relief, the number was further reduced to about 4,000.

The Citizens' Association raised about $135,000. During the winter there was expended for the benefit of all who would work at cleaning the streets about $100,000. The balance raised by the Citizens' Association was distributed among the regular established charities of the city and in such other directions as seemed proper.

As usual, the Chicago Relief and Aid Society had the money and machinery to meet all demands upon it. With returning spring the transient population disappeared, and business resumed its usual channels; and the summer left no traces of the perils, real or imaginary, which threatened the city during the winter.

The experience of that winter had its advantages. It aroused public sentiment, and directed the thought and effort of many citizens toward sociological study and philanthropic enterprise.

The women of the city were important auxiliaries in inquiring into the wants of and providing work for women. The Woman's Club, comprising in its membership a large number of the leading women of Chicago, and several other existing women's clubs, together with some new ones organized by women for the express purpose of helping women and children, did much to allay excitement and to furnish support to thousands, many of them widows and deserted women with families.

Co-operation has always been practised by the county, or public relief, and the Chicago Relief and Aid Society; and the lines of division between them are clearly defined. Interment, at the charge of the county, is made on the county agent's order, by the county undertaker, in a potter's field, at contract price of something less than $1 per subject. The interments furnished by the Relief and Aid Society are made through a private undertaker, in quite a different manner, in any cemetery preferred by friends of the deceased, at an average cost of $20.

There is little danger of conflict or duplication between the county agent and the Chicago Relief and Aid Society, or between the society and any of the other charitable organizations in Chicago. A practical and free interchange of courtesies prevails among all these bodies.

The system practised in Chicago has worked well there during my acquaintance with it for nearly twenty-five years. Other systems may work better elsewhere; and, for all I know, some improvement might be introduced in Chicago.

When the law of gravitation shall be suspended, so that men will not fall from buildings or into elevator shafts or under grinding car-wheels; when trusts and monopolies are abolished, and workmen receive a fair share of the profits; when strikes are no more or are conducted without malicious destruction of property and intimidation; when reckless men cease to abandon their families, in order to throw them upon charity; when women are paid a fair price for their work instead of having life ground out by sweat-shops; when liquor saloons are abolished, and men use their earnings for the support of their families instead of squandering them in gambling and dissipation; when chattel mortgage brokers are satisfied with legal interest, and landlords of tumble-down rookeries are as anxious for the comfort and health of their tenants as they are prompt to collect the rent; when flood and fire, pestilence and war, cease their destruction, — then, and not till then, will poverty and distress disappear, and, with them, the necessity for relief.

THE GERMAN "INNER MISSION."

BY PROFESSOR C. R. HENDERSON.

The German "Inner Mission" is a social movement of great significance in our century. We cannot copy it in America because the social conditions are very different in the two countries, but we can learn from its methods and be stimulated by its spirit. The comparative method of study, which has already achieved such splendid results in biology and philology, gives promise of equal fruitfulness in the field of the social sciences and practical arts. The peculiarities and one-sided eccentricities of the solitary worker are corrected by local, State, and national conferences, and still more by study of foreign movements. The temporary and accidental elements are eliminated, and the broadly human elements and perma-

nent principles are discovered. The comparative method puts firm ground under our feet. In a country like America, which has so large a foreign element, it is all the more desirable that we should consider the methods, customs, and sentiments of the nations whose poor are coming in such vast numbers to our shores. Happily, we seem to be approaching a time when sectarian differences are less likely to cloud the judgment, and when unbelief is willing to deal justly with the substantial social fact called "the church."

Whatever may be the ultimate issue, it is apparent that church charity is likely to be an important factor during the next generation. From the beginning works of charity have been an essential part of church life. Since the Reformation a system of State relief has grown up in all civilized nations, but without destroying ecclesiastical institutions. The exact boundaries of State and private relief, the special and peculiar functions of each, must vary in different countries, and must remain a matter for discussion and adjustment. But we have already reached some fairly definite principles for our conduct.

The *socialistic criticism* of all private and especially of church charity is not likely to make any radical change within a period which practical people can consider. Modifications of human nature and of social conditions are always in process of becoming, but they are slower than most socialists think. Even under a system as comfortable as they paint in their economic romances, there will be orphans, widows, insane, weak, crippled, and vicious persons, who will require not only physical support, but also the personal and organized assistance of some form of social sympathy. The socialist is right when he affirms that almsgiving can never cloak a criminal neglect of necessary economic and political change; but he is wrong in his wholesale condemnation of charity, and in his sometimes materialistic conception of human needs.

Looking directly at social life in the United States, we see powerful currents of benevolent purpose in the churches. Religious zeal is taking the form of humane endeavor. Interest in theological controversy is dying out. Denominational rivalry is manifested in social action rather than in polemics. Biblical and historical criticism has compelled Christian people to find the foundations of their faith in the actual life of love in the present rather than in the historical arguments for an ancient fact.

The example of Catholic and Hebrew charities has stirred the rich Protestant churches to similar benevolent enterprise. The rise of the great Christian Endeavor Society and similar organizations has liberated a new force of social beneficence which will require wise direction. In the mean time the corruption of the "spoils system" has invaded our public relief, and produced abuses which emphasize the need of attention from all good citizens. All these movements of thought and effort demand adjustment and reconciliation in the interest of society. This National Conference stands for such a reconciliation.

The German Inner Mission: its Activities.

A full account of the activities of the German Inner Mission would require a volume, such as that of Pastor Schäfer's *Leitfaden*. The chief topics of his book will give a survey of the range of these church charities of the religious establishment. In connection with societies independent of each other, and of ecclesiastical authority, but bound together and to the State church by moral ties, we see a great number of ministries to the poor, the weak, the endangered. These are all supported by private contributions, secured by appeals to religion, conscience, sympathy, and, possibly, to denominational interests and fear of the Social Democrats. It is rare in any human enterprise to see a good work done from absolutely pure motives. But we may well believe that the best motives are dominant when we see the extent and the spirit of these institutions.

There is the group of arrangements for the education of children, as day nurseries, kindergartens, Sunday-schools, orphanages, societies, and schools for boys and for girls. The Inner Mission seeks to promote the education and protection of youth by means of schools in household economy, boarding-houses, and associations. It organizes agencies for the rescue of the depraved, erring girls, wanderers, drunkards. It offers friendly help to those who are in special moral peril, as sailors and emigrants.

It has institutions for the sick and the defective,—the blind, deaf-mutes, cripples, feeble children, the insane. It supplies interesting and elevated reading by means of libraries, reading-rooms, and colportage. It enters more and more into the life of existing institutions and social movements with the purpose of preventing evils

and directing thought to the social causes of suffering. Hence we find Sunday-rest leagues, organized efforts to improve school instruction, tenement-house reforms, popular savings-banks, rooms for rational recreations. The Germans are, in a high degree, intolerant of quackery, so their Inner Mission provides agencies for educating and training their workers, as teachers, nurses, deaconesses, brothers, and voluntary helpers.

The Inner Mission is by no means the only form of private and church charity in Germany. Each denomination, each trade, each political party, one might say, and many social groups provide assistance for the poor.

Hence the need of co-operation has been felt in Germany as in England and America.

The German Association for Poor Relief and Benevolence, which corresponds in some sense to our National Conference, has struggled with this problem of co-operation for several years. The discussions of 1891 (led by Dr. Münsterberg and Dr. Rothfels) and of 1894 are particularly valuable. It is not to be expected that there should be entire unanimity. In fact, all extremes and intermediate shades of opinion come to light. There are some who would put an end to church charity if they could do so, and some who would abolish all outdoor public relief and let the church care for the dependants in their homes.

But, perhaps, the following statement will be found to correspond nearly to the judgment of most practical men: The establishment of a connection between public and private poor relief is to be regarded as necessary.

The centralization of all public and private poor relief, or of the latter alone, is to be regarded not only as an unsuitable means for the establishment of such relations, but also, in consideration of the occasion and the purpose of poor relief, is to be rejected as injurious.

Benevolent enterprises of the same kind should be brought into union, and those of different kinds should co-operate under a common direction. It is desirable to secure a reciprocal representation of the organs of public and private poor relief in the direction of all charities.

It is desirable to establish a means of exchange of opinions between the various agencies of charity and of information in

respect to the objects of each institution, by conferences and exchange of reports. There should be a place of information accessible to all the agencies of benevolence.

All injurious and useless schemes of benevolence should be set aside, if necessary by legal measures.

In view of the fact that private charity, by support for two years, often enables a pauper to secure a settlement to which he is not entitled, it is suggested that legal measures be adopted to prevent this abuse.

In respect to the field of private charity it was suggested: —

That private charity must be regarded simply as a supplement to official relief.

That it should be concentrated on the effort to prevent a person in misfortune from becoming a public charge.

That it should seek to avoid the social humiliation and pain involved in cases where publicity would bring social ruin.

That private charity should act in co-operation with public relief, especially when it does not assume entire charge and responsibility.

That private charity should not make the income of the dependant superior to that of self-supporting neighbors.

That the dependants who require sharp police superintendence should be left to the public authorities.

That non-residents should not be assisted without the knowledge and consent of the public officers of relief. Private benevolence may extend to all the life relations of the poor, and touch such needs as sanitary conditions, housing, education of children, instruction in technical processes. The dispensers of charity are social physicians who are dealing with a complicated social disease, and charlatans do great injury. Visitors must be taught and trained. Unity, and not brutal competitive strife in this holy work, must characterize all humanitarian enterprises. (Eberty.)

The system of State and communal relief is the basis of all German beneficence. In most of the cities some form of the "Elberfeld" system, or, more properly, some form of individual treatment under an organized method, has been established. The uniform testimony is that efficient voluntary visitors can be found to co-operate with the paid officials in the administration of relief funds. Professor Peabody's article in the *Forum*, on this subject, has presented the essential points here; and the Chicago Congress of 1893 gave

the method full discussion. If outdoor public relief is to continue in American cities, the Associated Charities will be compelled to work for the introduction of the fundamental principles of the German system. To do this, they will simply carry out their present policy.

The German Inner Mission practically takes the communal outdoor relief for granted. Its work sometimes crosses municipal and parish methods; but, in general, it does a distinct kind of work. Its friends believe that the influence of its trained workers is felt in a helpful way in public institutions. Certainly, history teaches that competition of methods is necessary to secure the best service of each form. Ulhorn quotes with approval the resolution of the Frankfort Congress of 1857: "Poor relief by civil authorities, by church officers, and by free associations, are in their place and measure justified; and they should work organically together."

Some of the chief lessons for American church charity suggested by the Inner Mission may be summed up in a few condensed paragraphs: —

1. The churches and ministry of America should be more largely represented in our National Conference. The churches should make this possible by appointing delegates, and, when necessary, providing for their expenses. The Conference itself has always opened a hospitable door to the ministry.

2. The ministry and the leading laymen need to be educated in the history and methods of charity, in order to meet the new demands of the next generation.

3. While the church would produce nothing but hypocrisy by becoming a direct administrator of public material relief, it may supply the moral forces which, only in a very subordinate degree, go with the agencies of public relief. Chalmers and Roscher have strongly insisted that material and spiritual help cannot go through the same channels at the same time without injury. But both these great souls insisted on the need of both forms of humane help.

4. The Associations of Charities may, without danger from sectarian strife, employ the church organizations to secure visitors and to provide a helpful and natural community life for discouraged families. The district work in Chicago, in the severe winter of 1893–94, was chiefly an organization of churches.

5. The church movements in the United States called the "Institutional" or "Open Church," the "Christian Workers," and the

Salvation Army, are examples of a large social work which needs to be unified, consolidated, and brought into intelligent and harmonious relations with the public relief system.

This can never be accomplished by force or by law, but only by the diffusion of sound teaching and by the influence of the Associated Charities.

6. The influence of this Conference is needed to secure a thorough and technical training for church servants who require such discipline, especially nurses of the sick. Professor Warner has expressed a doubt whether the churches will provide capable nurses for their hospitals and for visiting among the poor. His doubt is justified by past experience, and should act as a goad to the conscience of the churches. A few fatal cases arising from the ignorance of some church workers would do immense damage to the cause of religion and of charity. The German Inner Mission is seeking to set an example to the world in this direction. It may become necessary to require government certificates of ability in labor which demands skill. That would not be altogether unreasonable.

7. It may be suggested that the freedom of American life permits the church, far more than in Germany, to act upon the life of public institutions. Here also is a crying social need. In many places the community provides liberally for the merely animal wants of the poor; but its poorhouses often become magazines of "cold storage," its prisons and lock-ups are frequently out of touch with the higher influences of society, its officers are left to perform their duties without the cheer and inspiration of those who represent the highest interests of human life.

8. As the ideal toward which we should strive, we may set before us a *complete and real parish system for each community*. It may seem almost insane to suggest that every town should be one parish, or an organized community of spiritual parishes. The discord and wilfulness of denominational life are very strong. But the wisest leaders of Germany are keeping this ideal in mind and working toward it; and the various federations of churches for humanitarian and spiritual work already actually in prosperous life in America prove that this ideal is even now a practical force in the benevolent religious agencies of our country. May the discussions of this National Conference help to develop this hopeful tendency, and give it wise direction!

The Association of Charities offers a social organ for the beginning of this parish system. There all is free. No attempt is made to compel a union of really unlike elements, but a means of common representation in a work recognized by all as a religious duty is given to those who are ready to use it. Its mere existence is an incentive to that union of humane spirits which is the growing ideal of our age.

V.

Charity Organization.

THE CHARITY ORGANIZATION MOVEMENT: ITS TENDENCY AND ITS DUTY.

BY JEFFREY R. BRACKETT, PH.D., BALTIMORE, MD.

Since the Society for Organizing Charitable Relief and Repressing Mendicity, the first Charity Organization Society, was formed in London, twenty-seven years ago, over a hundred and fifty societies under that name, or a kindred name, have been formed, nearly all in Great Britain and the United States. To dwell to-night in a congratulatory vein on figures which show merely much good accomplished would seem to me to be unworthy this occasion. Three-fifths of all these societies belong to the United States. The oldest one is but eighteen years old, more than half are under ten years, several have died in infancy. The Charity Organization movement is in its youth, its formative period. Let us who represent its guides in America — gathered here from all parts of the land, in a sure knowledge of great good accomplished and in hope of greater good to come — examine carefully its tendencies. Then, if we see faults, let us try to do away with them; if we find higher duties, let us try to do them.

The object of the Charity Organization movement, as given at its start in London, was the diminution of poverty and pauperism by co-operation of benevolent forces and diffusion of knowledge touching charity and benevolence. The details of method then adopted have largely become as familiar to us as our A, B, C,— the careful investigation, the adequacy of relief, etc. But permit me to remind you that they included these: that working centres should be local, use being made of local interest and knowledge; that the work of individuals, volunteers, personal service, is one of the chief factors

of Charity Organization, and is to be stimulated by it; that material relief, when needed, is to come from the organization direct only when it cannot be had from other sources, and is to be as far as possible in the form of loans; and, lastly, the thought that underlies all, that any temporary aid should tend to the permanent advantage of the receiver, and so to the lessening of poverty and pauperism.

We are more indirectly interested in the question, what has been the tendency in these twenty-seven years of the societies in Great Britain, than directly concerned with it. Conditions vary, and they no doubt have their own problems to solve. But human nature is much the same the world over. Reports of over sixty British societies for organizing charity show that nearly all of them deal largely in direct gifts of material relief. A few have provided work-tests or work-relief; but more have given food to vagrants or have promoted the use of free-food tickets, etc. Co-operation and volunteer work seem, as a rule, to be as yet not highly developed. We turn from these reports with a sense of filial veneration for the London society and its great work, with the conviction that real charity is growing in Great Britain, but with another warning, that there is little in a mere name, that societies, like men, tend to fall away from high principles.

And how is it with us in America? The object of the Charity Organization movement is the same the world over. Are the methods which we are following, to reach it, the best methods? First, as to relief, for the stand which a society takes on relief affects every aspect of its work. A majority of us — a bare majority, indeed, counting societies, but a strong majority if greater weight be given to the leading societies and workers — proclaim and maintain the principle of having no general fund for material relief, of procuring such relief, when needed, from others who give it. A very few have established auxiliary relief funds, kept separate from their own treasuries. All of us believe, of course, that assistance to the needy to get regular work is better than any material relief. Some of us, as New York, Boston, Buffalo, Baltimore, proclaim it as one of our aims. Yet the society in Brooklyn alone, last year, secured permanent work for almost as many, if not as many, persons as all the other societies in the country put together. At least seventeen societies — a noticeable increase — now maintain wood-yards, work-rooms, or other agen-

cies for directly providing relief by work, partly for wanderers, partly for wanderers and residents. At least nine in 1893–94 and seven (some the same, some others) in 1894–95 provided emergency relief by work. As many more handled the distribution of special funds.

Next, as to co-operation. Nearly all societies report that it is increasing. Most of those in communities where there is public outdoor relief report friendly or mutually helpful relations with the officials. But answers to specific questions as to details show that co-operation consists so far very much more in our making investigations for others than in our securing assistance from them, even in reports of what they do. Some societies seem to be making little or no effort to get such reports. Especially noticeable is the lack of intimate relations with churches and individuals,— those sources of much harmful relief, if working apart, those sources of the best relief, in both material and personal service, if we can secure them as allies.

How, now, do we stand as to personal service? Nearly all societies mention in their aims the promotion of "friendly visiting." The number of visitors has increased in the past few years; and, happily, this increase is not confined to a few large cities. Yet there are noticeable exceptions here. The oldest large society, and also the society in the largest city in the land, have but few. In one city of nearly 300,000 persons, a society thirteen years old has none. In another city of over 200,000 persons, a society eleven years old has given up this form of volunteer work after five years' trial; and several societies in small communities report diminishing numbers. As to the character of friendly visiting work, the majority of visitors seem to feel that their only duty is to see their families through some immediate need.

Lastly, what of educational work — the spreading of knowledge of wiser methods of benevolent activity? Much has been done. Many a community owes a debt to its Charity Organization Society — a debt none the less large because often little realized and seldom repaid. Some of this has been done, directly, by institutions established or special efforts made by societies; some indirectly, by independent agencies promoted by them. Much of it has been accomplished by one form of volunteer work, that of influential members and managers. To recite it all would be like giving Homer's catalogues of ships and heroes.

Such, in brief, has been the tendency of the Charity Organization movement in America. We have gone a little way up the steep hillside; but already some have wandered from the path, a few have given up and turned back. To play the pedagogue or prophet is often a thankless task; but I venture to speak out frankly what seem to me to be the lessons which have been taught us, which we must heed.

We should stand firm on the rock, on which most of us have chosen to stand, of not dealing directly in material relief. If we do, we shall secure that relief, when it is needed, all the more gladly; but, above all, we shall cultivate the habit of helping the needy to get work, and a dozen things of greater price than alms. To get funds for material relief, and to dispense it, is the easiest way; but it is not the best way. And let us try to stand firm in dull times as well as good times. So-called emergencies are usually exaggerated, especially by the notion (too often promoted, for selfish ends, by newspapers and others) that relief cannot be secured in quiet ways for those who merit it. Golden Books and Loan and Grant Funds must be carefully guarded; for they tend to grow, in dull times, in both size and permanence. In securing needed relief, we should look first to relatives, friends, individuals, churches, and should turn, as a last resource only, to large relief societies and public aid. To turn to some convenient official is easier, but to rouse to activity or to turn from wasteful use the aid of individual or church is far better. There is too much tendency to-day to look upon the public purse as the resource for all needs; while, on the other hand, in churches and small bands of workers and individuals are to be found the highest exponents of charity, those who will give not merely of their means, but of their time and energy.

Some of our societies show a marked tendency to centralization, to mere officialism. Believe me, this is most dangerous. In the local divisions, the districts, should meet together the representatives of local bodies and the local benevolent workers, full of local interest and knowledge. Churches and little societies and individuals have not, as a rule, been persuaded — and they will not, I believe, be persuaded soon — to report officially the benevolent work they do, in order to build up, in some distant office, any system of registration. But the best workers in the churches, in the King's Daughters, and in this and that little group, and many single

workers, can be brought into the district offices, to learn by conviction, from experience, how much our methods will help them and help the poor, and so to learn how to help us to real co-operation. Without such co-operation, how can wasteful and harmful relief be avoided? The springs of our work lie in the districts. Dry these up, and the whole stream will narrow. In this respect the London society sets us a splendid example, which we, by keeping our stand of not giving material relief, may safely follow.

I speak last of another general method of work, because it seems to me to be, with all that has been done along its lines, the one that we most neglect. Yet it is most vital. Perhaps for this reason the London society now puts first, of its methods for improving the condition of the poor, the "propagation of sound principles and views in regard to the administration of charity." The education of public opinion to ideas of true benevolence! Each individual that we help up and on is a means to this end; but I think that our critics are often just in saying that, while we are busy over little things, we omit matters of great weight. Are we moving a few individuals to healthy homes, and yet leaving, without protest perhaps, the unfit houses for others to occupy? Are various agencies — such, for example, as dispensaries — giving away things, largely for the benefit of the promoters, and to the detriment of multitudes who can and should pay for what they get? Are first offenders being turned into criminals by close contact with criminals? Are we doling out alms to ignorant men and women staggering under debt, when we should on the one hand educate them, and on the other hand stop the exorbitant usury? I do not believe that we are doing all we can, by our influence as societies and as individuals, to abolish all conditions which depress, and to promote measures which raise men and neighborhoods and communities. In most of our cities and towns official outdoor relief is given. In some the amount has been lessened. In a few — Boston, for instance — it has increased. Brooklyn, Philadelphia, Baltimore, and Memphis — certainly, types of cities different in size and in many conditions — report no such relief, with thanks that there is none. Can the other societies justify its existence in their communities? What effect does it have on their object, — the diminution of poverty and pauperism?

Through all this, — for fighting down the need of alms, for securing

material aid, when necessary, in the wisest way, for real co-operation, for educating public opinion,— personal service is absolutely necessary. As it is the basis of true charity work, we must first and foremost seek its aid. We, of all persons, must not give the idea that charity can be done by mere officialism or mechanism. Neglect of the element of personality in both officials and volunteers has wrecked some of our societies. A society for organizing charity is not like many things,— a bank, an insurance company,— which most men believe are absolutely necessary, and which, because profitable, one or another good business man will manage well. To establish it is not easy, to maintain it is harder still. The mere fact that it ought to be a help and economy to all charities is not enough to keep it alive with any useful vitality, especially if lean treasuries and petty jealousies and fears of "red tape," etc., make charitable bodies and churches lukewarm to it. The higher are the methods it follows, the harder is its way. An energetic and tactful official — one who knows what Charity Organization means and is doing elsewhere — is no less necessary than are painstaking and public-spirited volunteers as managers, who will make it, not everybody's business, but their business. The wise direction of benevolent forces is not like the American politician's idea of public office,— something that anybody can do. The lives of some of our societies show fluctuations down and up, from practical disorganization to high efficiency, according to the personal element, to those in whose hands they chanced to be.

There is one more question to be asked, but not answered here; for the answer must vary with the peculiar conditions in each community. Do not some of us at times subordinate to ease and peace, or a petty co-operation, the great and helpful results which might come from a campaign of education? The cause of charity is suffering almost as much to-day from ignorance and indifference in the management of institutions and societies as the cause of good government is suffering from the venality of bad citizens and the indifference of so-called good citizens. A prominent charity worker once likened the model Charity Organization society to a union railroad depot, the terminus of all the charities of a city. The simile would be good, to my mind, provided all the charities be good. But what if some of these charities, by ignorance and antiquated methods, are working against the very aim of organized charity! We would not

think much of a great railroad which would be content to endanger the lives of all its passengers by using a depot together with a miserably managed road. Not peace, but a sword, has been and must be, at times, the means to a high end. Our name, especially "Associated Charities," which most of us happily have taken, expresses not an end, but a means. Knowing the end before us, let each society, in this regard, take the best means for reaching it.

Some of you may not agree with me that personal service and the education of public opinion are the most important methods in our work. If so, it is because you believe that the Charity Organization movement can succeed along the line of least resistance. I believe that it can succeed only along the line of most resistance, where the hardest work lies. I do not wish to come to our feast to-night to point to mystic words upon the wall; but I solemnly believe that the Charity Organization societies must work harder to do away with the causes of poverty and pauperism, or they will be weighed in the balance and found wanting.

Let us to-night resolve so to work as not to be found wanting. Much of the failure and discouragement that we know comes from the very loftiness of our object, and the high character of the only methods by which it can be reached. We must strive harder to keep that end in view, to guide our way by those methods. We must have not less co-operation, but more of it of a broader nature, not so much on paper as with persons working for positive results; not less giving of money, but more giving of time and energy and intelligence; not so much apathy to harm, but the willingness to fight against harm; not misconception of the word "charity," but the effort to bring it back to its God-given meaning. Following these guides, we may safely press on. Then, if men sneer at our work as "scientific" charity or call it new charity, we may answer that charity bears no qualification, and began when man first turned to raise up his fellow-man. The socialists and the impatient of every kind, talking of cross-cut paths to the millennium, may call us slow and trivial; but we shall go on, believing that we are in the right way — a long, tedious way, perhaps, but the sure way to lessening poverty and pauperism.

CONTINUED CARE OF FAMILIES.

BY FRANCES A. SMITH.

In the United States, Associated Charities work has passed from infancy into childhood. In earlier days we groped doubtfully for ways and means; but now we are beginning to work intelligently, and to form good habits in our methods.

Associated Charities cases can all be classified under three heads,— cases of degradation, of destitution, and of conditions requiring special work for children.

Under the first must be considered as causes: (1) laziness; (2) alcoholic intemperance; (3) lying, defrauding, beggary, shiftlessness, a too low standard of life, lack of economy, family squabbles, inefficiency; (4) cruelty to or neglect of children or relatives; (5) gambling, stealing, defrauding, vagrancy, illegal liquor-selling, cruelty to animals.

The causes of destitution are: (1) lack of work; (2) sickness or physical defects; (3) lack of wage-earners in the family, or poorly paid employment; (4) over-expenditure; (5) degradation.

In special work with children our first attention is given to see that they grow up under the best conditions possible,— moral, intellectual, social, industrial, physical,— and that they enter occupations where there is a chance of making a respectable livelihood for themselves and for their families in the future.

When we see adverse conditions in almost every family under our care appearing again and again, year after year, like the weeds in our garden, we must keep at work continually, season after season, pulling up the weeds of degradation and destitution, cultivating the thrift, self-dependence, industry, virtue, health, as well as the intellectual and social natures of our poor friends. If we hope for success in these human gardens, we must have such love, enthusiasm, energy, thoroughness, courage, as Celia Thaxter showed in her island garden. As she studied the habits of each plant in order to give it the essential elements for growth, so we carefully and patiently try to develop each family within the limitations of its nature. Mrs. Thaxter's book has many lessons for us, and it is pleasant to learn them in the delightful atmosphere of her breezy surroundings.

Thus it is essential for every visitor to start out with the idea that this friendship for the family is to continue. It could also be made helpful by frequent consultations between the visitor and his conference. This could be written out by the committee or its agent for every family needing a visitor, as, for example: "At 5 Clark Street lives James Leonard with his wife Ellen and their four children. You may introduce yourself as having heard that he is out of work. You may perhaps help now to get him employment, and in the future by looking out for the children. We shall be glad to hear from you about this family at the Conference, Charity Building, Wednesday afternoon at three o'clock, at the office, or by letter."

Whenever the family has been helped over its period of sharp distress, then comes the time to assist in improving its condition permanently. It has been said that it is impossible to visit a family without making improvement, and it is equally true that it is impossible to visit a family year after year without making permanent improvement. Only by this long acquaintance can the friendly visitor become "the visiting friend." Friendliness is helpful, but friendship is powerful for good. We all know how the confidence of a friend has helped each one of us up into places we should never have reached alone.

A striking example occurred once during a visitor's illness, when we were asked to call on some of her poor people. One of the women we had not seen since she first came to us some four years before. and we remembered her distinctly as quite ordinary then. Imagine our surprise on finding that a certain dignity and earnestness akin to that of the visitor had crept into this woman's life, and found expression in her face and bearing. Such transformations cannot take place in a few weeks or months. They are of slow growth, but they are the best rewards of friendship.

There are visitors who find it difficult to talk with their poor families. One, we remember, thought he could not speak to them of the opera and theatre, and so felt that there was nothing to talk about. Edward Everett Hale's "How to Do It" applies just as well to conversation between the poor and well-to-do as it does to conversation elsewhere. Why not talk, therefore, of the theatre or opera, or of anything which interests us, as the best means of interesting them? If they cannot afford these recreations themselves, they may care all the more to hear them described by others. Often our poor friends

are eager to know all we can tell about ourselves. If we wish to secure their confidence, the safest way to make sure of this is to give them ours.

There are visitors who keep to their own simple and natural ways with their poor as they do with their well-to-do friends. One of these visitors, an artist, took an unruly boy from one of her families to the Art Museum. In the same charming spirit with which she entertains her society friends, she cultivated the artistic imagination in this boy. When he went home, he could not begin again slashing up the furniture with his pocket-knife or beating his younger brother; for on every pine chair and table, as well as on his brother's jacket, arose visions of a soldier's camp-fire at sunset, of a cardinal in his crimson robe of state, of three boats sailing out into the moonlight. He soon became a good boy; but the process of making him clean and neat took two whole years, although it was done finally by continued lessons in connection with situations found for him from time to time. Perhaps we may be pardoned for giving a homely instance to show how the friendship of this same visitor established a healthful habit. A young girl went up to a country house for a vacation, and, on coming home, took the visitor one side, shutting all the doors, and asked, "Do you brush your teeth?" The visitor admitted the fact. "Well," said the girl, "the mother and the girls in the country brushed their teeth. I thought it might be a notion they had; but, if you brush yours, it must be right, and I am going to brush mine." This visitor writes: "It is only by the strength of our sympathies that we can be of use to the poor. The bond is, however, stronger and more wholesome when one is able to receive sympathy from them, and such small services as they wish to offer. If we can draw out an interest in our own way of life and occupation or experience from people who never read, our answers to their questions make a deep impression. The questions may appear somewhat indiscreet, but they are prompted not so much by curiosity as by the eagerness to understand something of the world outside of their own. Our answers may open a window from a dark room into the summer world of thought and imagination."

After you have been "the visiting friend," it is only one more step to have your poor friends come to visit you. Well do we remember the lady who gave the boys from her poor family a standing invitation to spend any of their leisure time at her house and gar-

den. In this cultivated home the intellectual nature of the boys developed. As they grew older, they went to the theatre only to see Shakspere's plays, though they struggled up into the top gallery, like Charles Lamb. When we first knew this family, thirteen years ago, they all ate out of one dish on the floor. Now one of the sons earns $1,700 a year as a designer, and the family owns a house in the suburbs.

Often the relation becomes quite social between visitor and family. At the conference one day a visitor told of a family she had befriended for five long years, where at last there had been considerable improvement in cleanliness, and some members had joined the savings society. Some one asked if the visitor would keep on with the family. "Oh, yes; but I only visit the family socially now," she answered.

We have now seen how the visitors impart their own virtues, how they cultivate the intellect, health, industry, self-dependence, thrift, and the social natures of their poor friends. In these ways and many others the visitor takes up the brotherhood of man, and translates sentiment into living acts and practice.

If we are anxious to keep our poor families from being pauperized, to help them to save, to start them out into new fields of activity and enjoyment, we should keep them under our continued care. Although kind and considerate, we must be firm and constant. Conciliation and tact are essential for success in our work; and these can be cultivated in us and in our unfortunate friends only by a long personal acquaintance and by frequent consultation on things of interest, finally making a compact of friendship and justice most powerful for good.

The more discouraging a family is, the more courage we summon to help them out of their difficulties. Although sometimes it takes a great while to discover them, encouragement and praise of the good points of a family, and their cultivation, bring excellent results.

As soon as the visitor and the family know each other well enough to have a hearty laugh together, even if it be at the expense of the family, it is a great help. A visitor found it difficult to get on confidential terms with one of her families until they happened to be talking about the children's birthdays, when she was surprised to find they all four came on holidays,— Washington's Birthday, 4th

of July, Christmas, and Thanksgiving. Upon further inquiry, the woman said she always called the holiday of the month in which each child was born the birthday, as it was easier to remember. Then the woman and the visitor had a laugh together over what would have happened if one of the children had been born in October or any other month when there is no holiday.

Constant attention is given to make the friendly visitor efficient and progressive. If the family moves from our district, the visitor is asked to continue his friendly relations, except in rare instances. For, if any charity work is worth doing at all, it is worth following up to see the results, that we may learn what plans it is wise to try again in like cases. Co-operation with relief societies is often made secure for special families, if we can quote practical results of long standing in similar cases. We try to keep growing, even if we have to learn sometimes by failures.

The continued care of families often leads to the adoption of new principles in our work. For instance, in the early days one of our old women, who had received a small monthly pension from the overseers of the poor for years, had been taken off from public relief, and the same pension given by a benevolent individual. Her case had been investigated by the overseer's visitor, by the Associated Charities' agent, and she had had a friendly visitor for a long time. Finally, from a new landlord we learned that this woman had a daughter who owned a six-thousand-dollar house, and was quite able to provide for her mother. This taught us the lesson that, where pensions are given, investigation should always be continued as long as the pension lasts. Soon after this an aged man and wife applied for a pension. True to our new principle, we looked up their old bank account, and to our surprise and theirs discovered still to the man's credit the sum of six hundred dollars, the bank having neglected to enter this amount on his book upon the death of a former wife and the transfer of her account in the bank to his name. With the help of a son this aged couple still live on their savings.

In all this work of the continued care of families, the visitor receives the constant help of the weekly conference, where we learn from each other, and of the daily committee, one member of which is at the office every day to make action taken for each family prompt and efficient.

Sometimes we cannot help wondering what the poor families think

about us, what they would wish to say if they were here with us to-day on this subject of the continued care of families, how they look upon friendly visiting and the visiting friends going on year after year. Once in a while we get hints of their thoughts. A young visitor is in the habit of calling every week upon the old woman in her care. When she cannot visit during the week, she sends a letter to speak for her. Lately she has been much surprised and pleased to find all these notes preserved and as carefully tied up as a package of love-letters. In another family the visitor was talking with a boy, Dan, for whom she had tried to get work, when he said, "If you offered me the best place in Boston, I wouldn't take it." The visitor replied: "Do you know what a foolish remark you have made? You do not seem to care for my help. Perhaps you do not want me to come here. Now I will give you just five minutes to think about this, and whether you ever want to see me again." Dan did not say anything, was perfectly sullen while the visitor sat, watch in hand, until she said, "The five minutes are up." He answered, "I do want to see you again." Then the visitor told him she should come soon, and expect to find that he had got work for himself; and sure enough he had, getting $6 a week.

As the habits of childhood help to make the character and success of the man, so the habits we are forming in our Associated Charities will shape the character and reputation of our work. Our lessons are the fruit of both sweet and bitter experiences, but the pleasant memories predominate.

Holding fast to the good that has come to us, and to our poor friends, from the past and the present, we lift our eyes for a vision of the future. Behold, the sky is still gray and dull with the clouds of degradation, destitution, and neglected childhood; but in the west a clear, bright light gleams. It glows brighter and clearer as the years move on. It reaches up into the dark clouds, giving them a silver lining. The destitute are not so numerous or so poor, the degraded are decreasing and improving, the children have a better chance in life.

How can we make this dream of the future a reality? What part can the continued care of families take in the uplifting of the poor? As all knowledge gives power, so an intimate acquaintance with the poor people furnishes facts upon which to build safe foundations for

the future. Not in vain are the sufferings of the poor. They teach us how to protect them, their children, and others from the like distress in the future. Already there are many forms of preventive work, but especially prominent are the savings societies, the recent introduction of physical and industrial education, the neighborhood guilds. The day cannot be far distant when ethical education will find its way into the schools. Great opportunities are ours in the continued care of families. May we have wisdom to see, and, seeing, to act for the best good of the present and the coming generations!

THE LOUISVILLE CHARITY ORGANIZATION SOCIETY AND ITS WORK.

BY W. T. ROLPH.

The Louisville Charity Organization Society was organized in January, 1884; and I am not extravagant in saying that since then it has had uninterrupted success, increasing its usefulness and winning its way into the confidence of the people of the city of Louisville every year since it started. The extraordinary work that it performed during the great floods of 1893 and 1894, and also in the administration of the relief during the great cyclone which occurred in March 27, 1890, of which relief committee I had the honor to be chairman, advertised, as it were, its work in such a way as to make it not only strong in a local and State sense, but also in a national way. The story of the great work of relief incident to the cyclone calamity, as told by myself at the Baltimore Conference, will perhaps be remembered by many of you. I simply refer to it now to show that, when good work is done, the public is ready to provide the funds to carry on such work.

For many years we occupied rented quarters for our society; but early in 1894 one of our noble-hearted women, Mrs. Mary R. Belknap, desiring to perpetuate the good name of her husband, whose heart and influence were always warm in behalf of true charity, presented the Louisville Charity Organization Society with a handsome

home on Walnut Street, admirably situated, with large grounds running back to another street, and, in addition, an independent entrance from a side street, thus giving three separate entrances.

After we had moved into our new quarters, it was the desire of the board to provide a home for transients, and also a workshop for our worthy unemployed. The ground that had been given to us was large enough for the site of the building known as "Wayfarers' Lodge." One of our noble public-spirited citizens, R. A. Robinson, Esq., who has given largely of his means to philanthropy and charity, and still lives to do more and see in his day how wise a thing it is for a man to be his own almoner, gave us $5,000 for this special purpose. This was supplemented by other amounts to near $9,000; and, before the year was over, we had erected on this ground, though entirely separate from the other building, a large brick and stone structure. We fitted this up with a large bath-room, and dormitories to accommodate over one hundred sleepers, the whole completed in the best sanitary manner. Workshops and ample stables for our horses were also provided. A committee from the Massachusetts legislature, on visiting and inspecting these, pronounced them in all their details and methods unequalled in the country. The value of the property which we now own — as of course the Wayfarers' Lodge is part and parcel of the Louisville Charity Organization Society, though operated separately through committees from that organization — is $30,000; and there is not a dollar of indebtedness on it. The buildings, though we have had to deal largely with a transient and tramp class of people, are as clean as any reformatory institution in the country, and are pointed to with pride by our citizens.

While this is true in regard to the building, what of the work done in the building, and through its agency?

During our fiscal year, ending Oct. 1, 1894, there were taken care of by this lodge 2,837 inmates, to whom were given 39,126 meals and 15,527 lodgings; and these inmates for that period cut and sold 22,545 barrels of kindling wood. From that date up to the first of May, which covers the entire winter season of 1894–95, there have been in this Wayfarers' Lodge 2,446 inmates, to whom were given 12,228 lodgings and 30,632 meals; and, in return, they cut and sold 21,237 barrels of kindling. These lodgings and meals were, in the larger portion of the cases, earned by the persons who received them,

they giving their labor in exchange. Of course, we had a large number of tramps, who were firmly but kindly treated, and told they must work to get shelter and food. Many of these were in filth and rags. They were first thoroughly cleansed in a bath-room, their clothes were fumigated, they were given a clean night-gown, and slept in a bed with bed-clothes as clean as any self-respecting person would want to use. These recipients chopped wood or did similar work, and as a remuneration received lodging and meals.

We were, however, confronted in the winter of 1893 and the winters of 1894–95 with a different class from the tramp; namely, worthy mechanics who, on account of the stoppage of the factory, incident to the depression in business, were thrown out of employment. These men wanted neither lodging nor meals. They were not charity applicants. They wanted to preserve their self-respect and earn something to support their families. We therefore said to them, "Come into our workshop, chop the kindling we put before you, and we will pay you in money; and you can take this money and buy your groceries or pay your rent and support your family." This we did to the extent of helping 135 families in 1894 and 90 families during the winter of 1894–95. The result was that these worthy citizens were given honest employment and thereby preserved their self-respect. So grateful were they that at the end of each season they passed resolutions of thanks to the Louisville Charity Organization Society.

It never was intended by our society that we should make a profit by such work as is carried on by our Wayfarers' Lodge, but so systematic was the work and so generous was the demand of the public for our kindling wood (we sold it at usual prices, and did not compete with others in the trade) that we were enabled not only to pay salaries, entire costs of equipment, new furniture, and maintenance of the lodge, but in the first year, Oct. 1, 1894, made a net profit of $11. For the winter of 1894–95 our receipts from the sale of the kindling wood, etc., have been $3,644, and our disbursements have been $2,765, leaving a balance in cash of over eight hundred dollars and wood on hand to the value of $105. Thus we are making money, though that is not our intention, as we desire it all to go for worthy relief.

It is extremely gratifying to be able to state that the funds for the support of the Louisville Charity Organization Society work proper

have been obtained by simply putting a notice in our daily papers that "the Charity Organization Society is in need of funds." In the last three years there has been no necessity for personal solicitation for one dollar. The money comes voluntarily from the people who have seen the work of the Louisville Charity Organization Society, and by this action indorse it. The society will close its fiscal year Oct. 1, 1895, with a balance to its credit. We purpose in the ensuing year to increase still further the class of work that can be done by the Wayfarers' Lodge, not entering, however, into competition with enterprises that are tax-paying.

In so far as Kentucky is concerned, while she has much to apologize for and is oftentimes misunderstood by many of her sister States, she is, in so far as the work of the Charity Organization Society is concerned, taking care in a proper and legitimate way of her own people who may suffer from untoward circumstances. She is thoroughly abreast in such work, has lived up to her obligations, and certainly deserves a good record and name in this particular. If this is true, is not this the leaven that will yet make her one of the foremost States in our great Union?

IS EMERGENCY RELIEF BY WORK WISE?

BY PHILIP W. AYRES, CINCINNATI.

Let us limit our subject. This paper deals not with general relief by work, nor with the value of labor tests, nor with management of the unemployed, except in times of emergency. The consideration of labor-yards for men and work-rooms for women, labor farms and labor colonies, is beyond our present inquiry, except as they can be used when some industrial change or some public calamity brings a special condition of need.

Shall we take two things for granted: first, that the principle of careful knowledge gained through investigation and registration is perfectly applicable in times of emergency, and, indeed, especially necessary at such times; second, that in ordinary times relief by work is better for the able-bodied than relief by alms?

At the beginning we may free our minds of one form of the problem; namely, short emergencies created by sudden disaster not likely to recur, as a fire or a flood. The problem in such times is that of finding those who have truly suffered, and helping them to escape the burden which has unexpectedly fallen upon them. At all such times the dishonest make their claims heard loudly. They have even feigned death to secure bounty. The problem, however, is a comparatively easy and simple one; and experience is a sufficient guide. Careful investigation and registration, together with careful distribution, may stir in the hearts of the poor a feeling of gratitude with no inclination toward pauperism or toward a renewal of such help.

In eliminating those suspected of fraud, a labor test as such may be used helpfully; but further than this the principle of relief by work for short emergencies must be a hindrance rather than a help, since a relief-by-work scheme takes time and money to put it into operation, and, if in any fair way all able-bodied sufferers are asked to work alike, they must be expected to earn at least some portion of what they receive, which removes them from their regular avocations. This must delay rather than hasten quick recuperation from the emergency.

Let us concede, therefore, that in all brief emergencies which are well managed, relief by work is not wise.

It may be added, however, as a secondary result, that, if the aid given in time of brief emergency is not well managed, if in time of flood or fire or earthquake a mob of would-be philanthropists distribute material in such rash fashion as to break down the self-restraint of the sufferers, then some form of relief by work may indeed become needful, not to remove the direct effect of the calamity, but to cure the effect of wrong giving; and this is important. A calamity like flood or earthquake or fire destroys material goods, but indiscriminate giving destroys the spiritual independence of the people; and social equilibrium depends upon both. In managing emergencies, whether short ones or longer, we cannot maintain the social equilibrium without these two elements, an economic distribution of material more or less equitable, and the moral independence of the people.

But the real question is still before us. Is relief by work wise in time of long-continued emergencies, such as industrial depressions?

We have just come through such a period, which has taxed all charitable agencies to the utmost. Many large cities, both in England and America, have tried the experiment of relief by work. What are the results of this experience? Now that the dark cloud appears to be receding, what are the lessons of the storm? This is a timely question, since the frequency and comparative regularity of past depressions hardly lead us to suppose that we shall escape similar trouble in future.

In hard times the burden appears to fall heaviest upon the very poor; and who can measure the privation that the poor in our cities have recently undergone? Those of us who have been able to watch the forces at work among the people during the last two years appear to have discovered this law,— that in times of industrial depression the burden of curtailed expenses, like the incidence of taxation, tends to fall heaviest upon those least able to resist.

I have in mind a colored woman with a blind son and a little grandson to support. She did washing for a family of which the man worked in a railroad freight office. When the railway handled less freight, it dropped this man from its pay-roll. After a few weeks, when he obtained no other work, his wife herself did the washing. Thus my friend, the colored woman, with her blind son, was without resources, but could shift the burden no further.

While the great body of the poor, who earn a small and sometimes precarious living, bear the burden, there appear mixed with them the criminal, the idle, and the vicious, ever ready to take advantage. These, though relatively few in number, complicate the question greatly, since humanity decrees that they also shall not be permitted to starve in hard times.

When an accident occurs to the human frame, a wise physician will seek to keep the body in a condition as nearly normal as possible until the bad results have disappeared. We who, as members of the Charity Organization Society, come to be social physicians in spite of ourselves, need to bear the analogy in mind. To keep the social condition as nearly normal as we can in time of depression, to improve it incidentally if we may, but to keep it normal until the depression is over, to make no residuum of paupers who shall prey upon the community, an affliction to themselves and to others, when more nearly normal conditions again prevail,— this is our task.

With the great body of the poor to deal with, both men and women,

with their great diversity of character, with the need of comparative haste, with *work* as the normal condition before the emergency and after, is it possible for us to maintain the social equilibrium through a period of several pressing months or a year without work? Has it not been the universal experience in large cities that work has been provided because it has been necessary and vital to two main factors in the situation, namely, the equable distribution of material and the maintenance of moral independence?

But this is only half. As, in all relief, intelligence is more important than amount, so in emergency relief by work, the employment given may be wise or unwise exactly in proportion to the intelligence of its administration. It is important to note that private may differ from public work in being better administered. Public relief by work, like public alms, may create immense mischief, and for the same reasons. Indeed, of the two, alleged work hastily given and badly managed is likely to be more harmful, in that it may degenerate character the more rapidly.

In how many of our cities has the cry gone out, "We have had relief work, but for the sake of the poor we hope we may never have to resort to it again"! On the other hand, workers in several cities are fairly satisfied with results of relief by work, and feel that no very bad conditions remain from it. May we not believe that this difference in result arises from difference in administration?

Looking at our experiences, good and bad, what do we find to guide us through the next industrial emergency? The following several points may serve as a summary: —

1. Public relief by work administered by unwise officials is harmful, because it stimulates an excessive number of applicants, more than it is possible to investigate well. It usually lacks skilful foremen, so that the work is done in a slovenly manner. It appeals strongly to the politician to use this large number of places to reward his followers.

2. Private relief by work is likely to be inadequate from insufficient funds. Money enough is not always subscribed to guarantee that no suffering occurs. This form appears to yield better results when applied to women than to men, as in the preparation of fur for hats through the Brooklyn Bureau of Charities.

3. A combination of public and private efforts can be made to eliminate some of the evils arising from the use of either separately,

so that the funds of the State and the knowledge of local societies, especially of the Charity Organization Society's registry, can both be brought to bear.

4. The work must be given to local bread-winners who are heads of families, and to no others. Unless the tramp and the loafer are dealt with through some form of labor still less attractive, such as the stone-yard or the wood-pile, they will swamp the best-laid plan of relief by work. The effect of their presence upon laborers is fatal.

5. Old persons or weak or youths should be referred to private relief societies, since the presence of these will deter stronger workers from earnest efforts.

6. The work given must be adequate in amount to prevent families from suffering either hunger or cold; but at the same time it must be really hard work in order to prevent dabbling, and it must be decidedly underpaid in order not to attract those who already have work at half-time or who have otherwise disagreeable work. The whole must be so unattractive as to guarantee that, when other work can be had, the laborer will seek it.

7. Some form of public improvement, as work on parks or roads, grading or light quarrying, can best be undertaken, since it is simple, easily learned, adaptable to different grades of strength, and does not interfere with the market of other laborers.

One proposition stands out strong and clear. It is that, if the municipal or other local authorities have work that must be done at some time, such as park improvement or road-making or public building, it is especially well that this be given through regular contractors or otherwise at the period of hard time. Such work at such times will tend to preserve the normal condition without interfering with the regular course of labor, and where it has been tried, as in Cincinnati, has greatly improved the situation. This is by no means a concession to the cry of the socialists that the State should supply work to all who need it. Far from it. This is but using the State to aid in preserving social equilibrium, so that the highest individualism, which includes the individual well-being of the poor as well as of the rich, may have free play.

The past depression came upon us unawares, and has been a great trial to the principles and methods of charity organization societies. They have stood the trial nobly. Let us take courage. When the next emergency arrives, we shall be better able to meet it.

THE PERMANENT IMPROVEMENT OF NEIGHBORHOODS.

BY CLARE DE GRAFFENRIED,

UNITED STATES DEPARTMENT OF LABOR.

The impression that the deliberations of this Conference have made upon me is that, while great importance is attached to preventive measures, and, above all, to charity organizations and child-saving societies, yet these societies confront effects, and not causes. In order to find the causes, we must seek beyond the province of either one of those bodies. These causes are connected with our national growth, one of them being the rapid increase of urban life through immigration and other sources; and another, the enormous industrial progress on which we justly pride ourselves.

It happens that in the exceptionally fast growth of our towns important features are often neglected. A great industry starts up, and it is absolutely essential that the laborers should be housed. Dwellings are hastily put up without drainage, without sewerage, without proper conveniences. Labor is even imported from a distance. All this results, in the course of a few years, in unsanitary and congested conditions that cause disease, pauperism, and sometimes crime, which the Charity Organization Society finds itself powerless to control. It seems to me that public sentiment should demand laws to prevent flimsy construction and overcrowding of dwellings, with attendant evils, and that we should not expect private bodies to do what the public ought to undertake. The Charity Organization Society ought not to attempt such measures as the better paving of streets, better drainage, or the introduction of a better water supply. It is true that the Charity Organization Society can mould public opinion; but we are likely to forget that charity organizations and all other societies are but the tools of the individual, which, after all, the individual must wield. We cannot afford to shelter ourselves as individuals behind the shortcomings of the Charity Organization Society or to ignore the responsibility that rests on us personally.

The central thought of my remarks is best expressed in the title of Charles Reade's novel, "Put Yourself in his Place"; and I am heretical enough to think that there is as much loving wisdom in that injunction as in "the law and the prophets."

If we wish to discover the cause that produces intemperate men and neglected children, we must go to the homes of the poor. We must see their lives, not with our eyes alone, but with our educated intelligence,— their toilsome lives of pain. What we need to do is to put ourselves in the place of the bread-winners, and attempt to piece out the workingman's experience with our schooling. We must bring an enlightened intelligence and a big heart to bear upon the limited and toilsome lives of workingmen. It takes a complete and rounded character to know how to meet these great problems of poverty. To be only rich or only learned or only poor is the lot of most men. What we should strive for is to be rich and learned, but something more, and *then* put ourselves in the place of the poor and ignorant,— not to impose on them the things that *we* like, but to secure for them the things that *they* need in the way that they can best accept and assimilate.

The faculty that I find wanting, not only in charity workers, but in social reformers, is the faculty of imagination. If you wish to impress upon people that child-labor is a very bad thing, you may talk, you may argue; and in return you will perhaps hear nothing but the sentimental sophism that the parent needs the earnings of the child. But, if you shall show to those you want to convince some poor, wizened creature that has spent its life in the foul air of the factory, you have an argument that appeals at once to the senses. A lack of imagination prevails where one least expects it. I happened, not long ago, to be present at a woman's club when some new building laws for the regulation of tenement-construction were read and submitted to the club for its indorsement before being carried to the legislature. Every clause in those laws was of vital importance, not only to the club women, but to the whole population of the crowded city, and, it is safe to say, to generations yet unborn. Every line, every word, should have been challenged by the women present. Those women were, for the time being, the guardians, the representatives, of the toiling mothers down in the slums,— the mothers whose babies, sacrificed to bad air and insanitation, are as dear to them as are the darlings of the rich to their parents,— the

mothers who must bring up their children under conditions of which it is hard for the better part of society to conceive. These mothers, in the tenements with numberless children and lodgers and friends, must sleep and eat and live in two or three small stuffy rooms in buildings without any conveniences even for decency; yet they are expected to bring up their families to lead self-respecting lives. The club women listened to these laws without comprehending or caring much for them. Instead of challenging every word, they spoke flippantly to each other, and twitted each other about the number of windows in the back buildings of their own luxurious homes. They could not understand the difference between their surroundings and the homes of the poor. They were lacking in imagination.

Better building laws lead directly to that which I consider most important for the permanent improvement of neighborhoods, namely, better housing of the poor. Unfortunately, our preventive measures come too late. We have the bad houses. We encourage the cheap and flimsy manufacturing towns; and we shall have slums developing in every business and industrial centre unless the law-makers understand the danger, and provide safeguards.

As I travel through all parts of the country, I see that almost every small manufacturing town is in great peril from unnecessary and preventable overcrowding. Unfortunately, there is nothing to hinder it. The municipalities seem to exercise no authority in the matter. Lots are divided and subdivided by grasping and ignorant landlords, whom I do not always blame; for rich and educated landlords set the example. They all want to make as much as possible out of the real estate that comes into their possession. Buildings are multiplied on the smallest spaces. Barracks are put up, holding from ten to fifty families, in which as many as possible of the foreign population congregate; for these foreigners are usually social and gregarious. By getting them together in large numbers, the landlords derive the highest possible revenue. This is a very great danger to health and morals; and it behooves, not only the charity organization and child-saving societies, but the tax-payers, to see that the building laws are improved in time to prevent the growth of ill-constructed tenements, else our remedial measures will come so late that whatever changes are made must be made at vast expense and trouble.

Perhaps you do not fully realize that the poor who, for many reasons, are condemned to live in wretched quarters of the town, do not go there from mere choice. Labor is not mobile. The workingman stays where his occupation lies; and, strange as it may seem, it is often a positive disadvantage for a laborer to own his own home. If employment changes, as industries do and will, he loses his position; and most workingmen have not a second trade upon which they can fall back. Trades do not now dovetail into one another.

I am often struck with the inconsistencies of our educational system. We teach our foreigners to read and write; but we neglect to teach these poor and ignorant people the most important of all knowledge — that is, how to live. The mother with many babies needs to know how to live, how to keep up and nourish the body, how to have decent surroundings, how to create such a home as makes for virtue and morality.

I speak of all these matters with a certain authority; for not only have I for many years visited and studied the "slums" in nearly all the large cities of America, but not long ago I made a personal and careful house to house and room to room inspection of the most congested districts in New York and Philadelphia. I visited fourteen hundred tenements, sixteen hundred families, and over seven thousand individuals. The outreaching for better things among many of these persons would surprise you. In homes of the humblest character we occasionally find a model little room, just a poem of neatness and refinement, considering the small resources at the disposal of its inhabitants in the way of decorations to meet their love of art. The poor are not only ambitious, but they are resourceful to a degree that puts many of us to shame.

The *chief* cause of bad conditions in manufacturing towns — more visible in them than in larger cities — is absenteeism. The manufacturer to-day seldom lives at the central source of industry from which he draws his wealth. He lives away from it. And, when he does that, the model industrial settlements do not grow up. It may be sometimes that the builders of these model settlements are selfish; but, at any rate, it is a selfishness that makes for the good of humanity. I was talking lately with a Connecticut manufacturer who has surrounded himself with conditions that are almost ideal. I could not help praising him for many things that he had done.

There was practically no poverty there. "Why," he said, "do you suppose I should do all this if I did not live here myself?"

Another illustration of the absence of imagination in our dealings with the working classes is afforded by the unthinking way in which a good many people have entered upon the question of tenement reform. With the very best intentions, some of them have done more harm than good, because every failure discredits the movement, which in itself is of the utmost value. I have had occasion to talk before one or two women's clubs about the housing of the poor, and the methods of Mrs. Lincoln and Miss Octavia Hill; and in these discussions I have heard over and over again the same sad story of the ill success that has attended many efforts. In asking the persons who had made the attempts about their way of proceeding, they have confessed that they always went off in the summer, and left some one else to attend to the work,— going to Europe, for instance, and paying an agent to collect rents. However faithfully agents may work, they cannot achieve the same success. In every case where I have heard of failure, I have asked, "Do you collect your rents yourself?" "No," has been the reply. The women would look astonished at the thought of personal attention to such details. They do everything else; but the significant and important point of personal contact with tenants they had omitted.

One of the large movements of which I spoke, and which will grow out of aroused public opinion, backed by charity organizations and other charitable and reformatory societies, is better drainage. It would surprise you to know how many outwardly respectable homes, as well as the homes of the poor in our large cities and in manufacturing towns especially, are unconnected with any drains. There is no sewerage system whatever. This is true particularly of older houses. In newer quarters, where sewers have been introduced, connections have sometimes been made. But frequently it is the rich landlord who refuses to make the connection, and his tenants must suffer the consequences.

The second and most important means of securing the permanent improvement of neighborhoods is a better water supply,— good water and plenty of it. Not the fishy liquid we are asked to drink in New Haven; not the small supply from the shallow brook; not a supply where all the water for household and drinking purposes is

derived from one sole hydrant, to which fifty families, perhaps, must go; not one single well, the sources of which are polluted. The hydrant in winter is often frozen, occasioning incalculable annoyance to the housewife.

In Allegheny, Pa., not long ago a meeting of the Women's Health Protective Association was held, to make an appeal for the abatement of the smoke nuisance and for clean streets. The women were exhorted by the mayor to use their influence for a better water supply. One of the most prominent ladies declared, however, that she wanted clean streets; *she* did not drink the city water, anyway, as she *bought* all she ever used. I thought this one of the most heartless speeches I ever heard. After the meeting I appealed to the woman, telling her that the polluted water was half the food supply of the poor, that they could not afford such beverages as the rich can buy. Moreover, the rich can go out of town in summer, when hurtful water is most deleterious, whereas the poor have not even the appliances to purify water by boiling it. The lady — who had a heart of gold — was filled with contrition when I described to her some of the typhoid fever patients I had encountered in Allegheny. A good water supply means a lessening of doctors' bills and bills for funeral expenses.

It may seem to you that I draw all my unfavorable illustrations from women. I do not feel obliged to join in the general apotheosis of woman. She has done so many noble things that I do not feel bound to pat her on the back and praise her when she does one more, but rather to blame her when she fails to exercise a broad, impersonal spirit.

A third means for permanently improving a neighborhood is in securing better pavements for the courts and alleys. Again, the city of Allegheny furnishes me facts for the truth of this statement. Despite the opposition of the tax-payers, the alleys there have recently been paved with asphalt, contributing enormously to cleanliness. The women now scrub their steps and halls, that these may not be out of keeping with the asphalt pavements. In a little while the mothers will scrub the faces of their children. The friends of reform in Philadelphia secured an appropriation to pave a similar poor quarter of the Quaker City. The result has been most happy: better sanitation and higher standards of neatness prevail. It is the old story of the blue teapot repeated: "They must live up to it."

There are measures bearing on the spiritual environment of the poor as well as the material, which are quite as essential as those to which I have asked your attention,— schools, libraries, working-men's institutes, clubs, recreation grounds, gardens. You will think me heretical again when I say that I begrudge to the overcrowded and congested city districts the spacious churchyards. It is a great pity that they should be closed every day of the week. In London they are always open. One of the most admirable reforms of the London County Council was to throw open the churchyards in the East End. For miles, from Trafalgar Square to Stepney, there was scarcely a breathing-place except the Mile End Road in East London. Now, however, every churchyard that had a half-acre, even although planted with tombstones, has been opened to the people, with proper care-takers. St. Martin's-in-the-Fields is now a playground and park. The flagstones have been removed from the paved yard. A few dusty, puny, and sickly plants are being coaxed to grow there. I thought, as I saw them, of our wealth of verdure in America which we shut away from the urchins and little girls who, in great cities, would be so glad to play under the shade of the large trees. Acquaintance with nature, love for the soil, gardening, afford effective ways to reach the children of the poor. Gardens are sometimes planted in the rear of tenements in places formerly abandoned to ash-barrels and tomato-cans. There is no better way of utilizing waste ground than to turn it into garden spaces, and allow the children to cultivate flowers and vegetables.

I should like to see cooking classes, drawing classes, housekeeping classes, established in the meanest neighborhoods. Nothing has so much influence on the moral as well as on the physical condition of the poor as the food which they eat. The women, upon whom depend the lives of husband and children and the building up of their frames, know too little about cooking. In the course of the investigations I have had to make, I have ascertained the exact amount of food consumed, and the diet upon which workers in various trades live ; and it was astonishing to find how much money is spent in baking powder, in some cases exceeding that devoted to nourishing fare.

The most delightful spectacle which I saw in Belgium was a large art school in one of the poorest suburbs of Brussels, where there were six hundred little boys and young men of from eight to twenty-

five years old, all in wooden shoes and blue blouses, drawing away for dear life. If, in the squalid quarters of our cities, or even in our country districts where life is so dull, monotonous, and uninteresting, you put a well-managed night-school, where the children can see good photographs and where they can learn drawing, have some experiments in chemistry, acquire the use of tools, be taught gymnastics, etc., you will greatly improve the next generation. You may nearly regenerate it. You create practically new lives and new tastes. The boys brought up there will not become toughs; the girls will not be bold. Miss Morgan, of Hartford, told me that the most successful art class she had last winter was the one made up of working-girls, not that of society women. These girls have been so interested in the photographs that she has given them that they are pinching and saving to scrape together enough money to go to New York, and have her go with them, to visit the Metropolitan Museum. I have found factory operatives deeply interested in public questions, and it is our duty to help them to know about all these things.

In a suspender-factory I once discovered that an employer was in the habit of terrifying his young women by lurid descriptions of the tariff, saying that it was certain to destroy them all, body and soul; and one young woman actually believed that the tariff was a horned and hoofed animal that was going to mangle and gore her. We have a mission to fulfil toward these young women. I believe that civic clubs, clubs for good government, are just as important to the poor and working classes as to the rich and educated. We are always complaining of the workingman's ignorant vote, while we do nothing to enlighten that vote.

A library established in the poorest quarters is another necessary improvement. It should not be an architectural wonder, like those in the residential part of a city; but it should be a suitable building erected where the working people reside. If you give them the sense of possession in a library and reading-room, and make them live up to it, the effect will be ten times greater in their homes than if you establish a library in a convenient tobacco shop or a Charity Organization Society office.

Should a rich man want to establish free baths or give a fountain or a garden to the poor, let him do so on the condition that that part of the city shall be kept clean. Let nothing be given too

freely. Mutual co-operation, the sense of ownership, the thought of having privileges as rewards of good conduct, will secure the best effect.

The new religion is service. Aloofness from all these great movements means stagnation. If Buddha had lived in the nineteenth century, he would have appreciated his own philosophy: that all individuality is separateness; all separateness, limitation; and all limitation is ignorance and pain. "The individual withers, and the world is more and more."

VI.

Sociology in Institutions of Learning.

IS THE TERM "SOCIAL CLASSES" A SCIENTIFIC CATEGORY?

BY FRANKLIN H. GIDDINGS, M.A.,

PROFESSOR OF SOCIOLOGY IN THE UNIVERSITY FACULTY OF POLITICAL SCIENCE, COLUMBIA COLLEGE, NEW YORK.

Science sets herself two tasks: one, to discover new truth; the other, to render more definite and exact the knowledge that we have already in the rough. The second task is but a minor form of the first, since it is through further discoveries in matters of detail that we correct errors once unobserved, and arrive at finer appreciations of the infinitely varied manifestations of cosmic cause and law. The systematic study of science in the university is rewarded now and then by discoveries of great moment, but these are the grand prizes that fall to the few. Not less useful for the purposes of daily life is the patient rectification of empirical knowledge, which must be always the chief function of university work in science.

The systematic study of sociology — which, after many years of effort, is now securely established in the leading universities of Europe and America — will be justified, I have no doubt, in fresh discoveries of laws that govern the course of human progress. Its immediate work, however, is to examine critically the conceptions, the classifications, and the rough generalizations that have been made in empirical social science in the course of practical efforts by philanthropists, reformers, and legislators to understand and to ameliorate the conditions of social existence. It is my purpose in the present paper to present certain results of such a criticism, applied to conceptions and classifications that are in constant use in the

studies and discussions of this National Conference of Charities and Correction.

The term "social classes" is not only a commonplace of every-day speech, in which it expresses sometimes a notion of social superiority or inferiority, sometimes differences in wealth and industrial position: it is also in constant use in statistical researches and in theoretical interpretations of the phenomena of progress, social unrest, degeneration, pauperism, and crime.

What, then, is a social class? Is there any reality corresponding to the phrase? or is it merely one of those expressions that abound in this age of superficial thinking, which slip easily from the tongue, and which sound intelligible, but upon examination turn out to be meaningless?

As a first step toward answering this question, we may look at some of the ways in which the term has been and is employed.

No expression is more familiar to the members of this Conference than the phrase "the defective, dependent, and delinquent classes"; yet I venture to say that you would search in vain through the superb collection of inane generalities and meaningless mysticisms in the five hundred and sixty pages of Max Nordau's "Degeneration" for a phrase more difficult to translate into coherent thought. I do not suppose that in saying this I am telling you anything new. The trouble is, as you are well aware, that defect and pauperism or defect and criminality are terms not of one classification, but of a cross-classification. When you find a blind man or a deaf man, you do not by that mark know that he is not a pauper or that he is not a criminal, as you know, when you find a six-toed cat, that it is not a lobster or a sea-urchin. In a word, it is perfectly evident that, if paupers are a social class or if criminals are a social class, the defective people, as such, are not a social class, and that it is an unscientific and relatively useless statistical inquiry which gives us merely the numbers of the defectives in a class co-ordinate with paupers and criminals, instead of going on to distribute those numbers in a cross-classification with the other groups.

Again, to take another illustration, it is evident that the wages-class, so called, is not co-ordinate with the defective, the pauper, or the criminal class, and that the gradations of poverty recognized by Charles Booth, in his studies of the "Labor and Life of the People," are not co-ordinate with industrial classes, with political

classes, or with pauper or criminal classes. Once more, if groupings by occupation and profession are true social classes, then all the other so-called classes that have been named must be described by some other adjective. If "doctor, lawyer, merchant, chief," are social classes, we certainly have no scientific warrant for applying the same description to the further catagories, "rich man, poor man, beggar man, thief." Nevertheless, the merest glance at any modern statistical compilation or at any learned treatise on progress and poverty, or at the invaluable reports of the National Conferences of Charities and Correction, will be quite sufficient to convince you that our sociological classifications have been taken directly from the nursery jingle without any waste of time and gray matter in criticism.

If, then, we are to reduce to scientific order the vast mass of observation and statistical material which is now at our command and which is yearly accumulating, if we are to derive from it true sociological generalizations and make it available for the verification of sociological law, we must begin to ask ourselves the question, Which, if any, of these strangely confused statistical groups are true social classes? By this I mean, Which, if any, of these groups correspond to actual social differentiations of the population? The conception of evolution has given to the natural sciences a true principle of classification. If we expect to make real progress in sociology, we must adopt the same principle in our own investigations. That is a true class in which objects or individuals are grouped with reference to some characteristic that has been produced by evolutionary differentiation. Unless this genetic test is applied, we constantly mistake temporary, adventitious, or non-essential relations of phenomena for permanent and essential ones, as did the botanists and zoölogists before Darwin.

Nor is this all. If we consistently follow this principle, it enables us to distinguish between primary and secondary characteristics, and so to mark off the fundamental or general from the special, and therefore to separate that which enters properly into primary from that which enters into secondary, or cross, classification.

And this clearly is what we most need to accomplish in social science at the present time. From some point of view each of the population classes that has been named has its justification. The problem is to bring it into subordination to a more fundamental

class, if such there is, and into co-ordination with other classes of equal grade.

To achieve the solution of this problem, we must go back of the material that we find in the statistical collections of to-day, and examine it in the light of our knowledge of social evolution. Which of the classes that the population of a modern community seems to be distributed into correspond to primary differentiations in social phenomena, which to later, secondary, and therefore less fundamental, less important differentiations? To answer these questions is, I think, one of the services that the theoretical sociologist of the university can render to the practical worker in philanthropy.

Accordingly, re-examining our classifications with reference to the evolutionary principle, it is obvious that classifications by wealth and poverty are not fundamental distinctions. These are among the latest and most special phenomena of economic progress. They give us categories to be used in cross-classifications, not in fundamental classification. Somewhat more general, but by no means fundamental, are classifications by employer and employed, or by wage-earners, landlords, and capitalists. This is a grouping which in modern society has superseded the differentiation found in early communities into chief men, nobles, or aristocracy, on the one hand, and tenants, serfs, or slaves on the other hand. The old organization was levelled to a comparative equality. From that level sprang a new inequality. In the social process which thus perpetually generates inequality from equality, the heterogeneous from the homogeneous, we find the thread that has only to be followed back to bring us to the discovery of primary social differentiations, and to a recognition of true social classes as something different from and precedent to political, industrial, and economic classes.

Life in aggregation, and the interchange of thought and feeling which are the generic phenomena of association, act upon and modify the natures of the associated individuals quite as powerfully as does the external physical environment of land and sea, of heat and cold, and rain. Association determines first of all what elements of heredity shall be combined in the bodily structure, the mind, and character of each individual, and what opportunities shall fall to his lot. By no combination of chances could it happen that the per-

mutations and combinations of heredity and opportunity could result in the creation of equally endowed individuals. Here, then, as the immediate result of the simplest and most fundamental social facts, those merely of aggregation and intercourse, we have the basis of social differentiation, in the unlike qualities and unequal abilities of the population units. Therefore, the most fundamental population classes are what I should call the personality classes, in which the defectives, recognized in our census enumerations, should be counted as special groups. Perhaps these are the only groups that at present it is necessary or possible to enumerate; but we ought to see clearly that these are, in fact, but minor groups in a classification which would recognize also, at the other extreme, the number and distribution of the geniuses in the population, and, in an intermediate group, the men and women of normal organization and powers. The beginnings of a scientific study of these groups have been made by Sir Francis Galton, Lombroso, and a few other less well-known investigators.

Given, now, facts of aggregation, association, and personal inequality in the population, we have the conditions from which must follow a true social differentiation,—a distribution of the population into social classes, properly so called. These social classes, as has been said already, are not co-ordinate with the personality classes. They result from other combinations, and can be combined with the personality classes only in cross-classifications.

The process of their genesis is this: Association continues to act upon the natures of the unequally endowed personal elements in the population. Some men it moulds into a perfect adaptation to social life; others it modifies in a less degree; while those inheriting imperfect natures,—that is to say, those defectives whose defects have assumed the form of degeneration—are likely to be negatively modified by social pressure and discrimination until they become unfit for social life, or even antagonistic to it. Accordingly, we have here a differentiation of the population with reference not to personality as such merely, not to political or industrial position, not to wealth or poverty, but to society itself, to social life as distinguished from non-social or unsocial life. Are not these, therefore, the real social classes which we have endeavored to find?

You will have perceived, of course, that two of these classes are the paupers and criminals of current classifications; and this is a

rather interesting result, since not a few theoretical or philosophical sociologists have strongly objected to that conception of sociology which would include a study of pauperism and criminality in social theory. The study of these subjects, they have said, is applied sociology: theoretical sociology should restrict itself to an investigation of social evolution. But, if I have been right in my exposition thus far, the genesis of pauperism and of criminality is an integral part of the general process of social differentiation, and therefore cannot be ignored by the strictest theorist. The moment that association begins to act upon unequally endowed individuals, strengthening and enriching the social nature of some, while hardening the unsocial or anti-social nature of others, society begins to realize that it has to deal thenceforth with the pauper and the criminal classes.

How shall we name and characterize the four true social classes? I should call them respectively the social, the non-social, the pseudo-social, and the anti-social, these terms denoting the gradations of social nature. The social class is made up of those whose dispositions and abilities enable and impel them to make positive contributions to that sum of helpful relations and activities which we call society. There is no better way to discover what is the essential characteristic of a thing that has vast and bewildering manifestations than that of studying it in its simplest forms. The test which society, in the narrower sense of the word, or polite society, so called, applies to the men and women who seek recognition and preferment, is precisely the test that society, in the grand sense of the word, must apply in determining who belong to the social class. They are the social who can and will give of their thought and culture, of their sympathy and their resources, for the pleasure, the advancement, and the well-being of their fellow-men. If ability and willingness to entertain and help is the general social test, if ability and willingness to entertain with charm is the test in a society that cares for refinement, so ability and willingness to devote life and means to the defence and amelioration of the existing social order always has been and always must be the test of positively social qualities in the larger sense. That class which Harrington, developing the thought of Aristotle, called the natural aristocracy among men, a class made up of true statesmen and men of enterprise, of philanthropists and reformers, and of the teachers, the artists, and the poets who voice the common aspiration, this is the social class, without which no

community, whether its government be monarchical or democratic, whether its wealth be small or great, can survive and prosper.

The non-social class is composed of those individuals who are sticklers for a narrow individualism. They are independent: they will not accept favors, nor will they often give them. All they ask is to be let alone. This is the primordial social class. It is from this class that, directly or indirectly, all the other classes are generated. It contains in germ all social virtue, all vice and crime. It is simply neutral, waiting to be reached and impelled upward or downward by the resistless currents of social life.

The pauper is the pseudo-social man. That which sharply marks him off from the criminal is his pretence of social virtues. He always appeals to you as a man who would be himself a philanthropist if only he were able. By his own account he has always been industrious, he has conformed to every social requirement; but misfortune has pursued him with relentless malignity. If you will but help him this time, he will not only bring down upon you by his unremitting prayers the blessings of Almighty God, but by ceaseless industry he will repay your generosity, and, should your children's children ever know the pangs of want, his children's children shall seek them out in every land and minister to their necessities.

Not so is the criminal. He is the anti-social man. He makes no pretence of social virtue, for he frankly despises society and all its ways. Why a man should beg so long as there is anything to steal, why he should go to law if he is able to avenge himself, are things that the true criminal cares not to understand.

These, then, ladies and gentlemen, are, I believe, the social classes, corresponding to a real and fundamental social differentiation; and the term social classes as applied to such groups is a true scientific category. Whether it is possible or desirable to make statistical studies of the social and the non-social as well as of the pseudo-social and anti-social groups is a question with which I will not trouble you to-night.

SCIENCE AND SENTIMENT IN ECONOMIC POLICY.

BY PROFESSOR ARTHUR T. HADLEY, NEW HAVEN.

In that part of Kidd's "Social Evolution" which treats of the antithesis between reason and religion the author is at great pains to explain what are religious motives and what gives them their force; but he subjects rational motives to no such analysis. He scarcely takes pains to define what they are. He apparently assumes that everybody knows what is meant by reason, and that rational conduct is selfish conduct.

Both of these points are far from the truth. Very few people have any clear idea what reason is; and, so long as they confuse rational conduct with selfish conduct, they are not likely to make any progress toward such clearness of ideas. In point of fact, rational conduct is not necessarily connected with selfishness any more than impulsive conduct is necessarily connected with unselfishness. There is always, as we shall presently see, a liability that reason may be connected with selfishness; but this liability by no means amounts to a certainty or even to a presumption. In fact, the process of social evolution, as it goes on in civilized nations to-day, depends for its success in large measure upon our ability to keep the two things separate. Of all the responsibilities which lie on the shoulders of our teachers of social science,— in the colleges and out of them,— none is more weighty than the duty of teaching people to avoid this confusion.

An illustration from military history will show where we stand in this matter. Down to a comparatively recent time it has been supposed that intelligence on the part of the rank and file of an army was incompatible with military discipline. There always have been, and still are, people who hold that, if you teach a soldier to think, the first use he will make of his thinking will be to devise means of running away. Such persons hold that the necessary degree of self-devotion, on the part of the soldier, can only be secured by the machine-line impulse of obedience to authority. Now, if the alternative actually were what it seems to be to these men,— an alternative between mechanical discipline on the one hand and reason-

ing cowardice on the other,— the former would be much the better of the two. But for modern armies the alternative does not take this shape. It has been found possible to teach the soldier to think without impairing the subordination of his personal ends to those of the cause for which he fights. The problem of training the best army depends on the development of these two things side by side.

The same conflict of views shows itself in every department of life. From the time of Saint Paul down we have had misunderstandings without end between an intellectual minority, whose diet was governed by reason, and an emotional majority, whose diet was governed by sentiment. The injunction, Let not him that eateth despise him that eateth not; and let not him that eateth not judge him that eateth, is as timely to-day as it was eighteen centuries ago. Though the particular points at issue change from generation to generation, the conflict between the two types of character repeats itself. In the Middle Ages the public sentiment of the emotional majority regarded with grave suspicion the man who was always sober. Rational conduct in this respect created a presumption of selfish conduct. If a man never got drunk, such extraordinary conduct led people to think that he was undoubtedly trying to overreach his fellow-men. We have outgrown this way of looking at this particular class of acts. We no longer regard a man with suspicion because he habitually subjects his appetite to reason, and uses calculation in his dealings with himself. But a very large part of the community is in the highest degree suspicious of a man who habitually uses calculation in his dealings with others, and subjects his emotions to reason as well as his appetite. Men who would scorn the bare thought of indulgence in drink deem indulgence in indiscriminate charity a virtue, and regard the man who resists the temptation to give, because he sees the indirect consequences, in the same light that their ancestors regarded the conduct of the man who let the wine-cup pass untasted for the same reason.

What makes the views of such unreasoning moralists doubly dangerous is the absolute good faith in which they confuse emotion and morals. A French essayist has said that virtue is more dangerous than vice, because its excesses are not subject to the restraints of conscience. This has an especial truth in matters of economic legislation; and the dangers which arise from this source are greatest when such legislation is under the control of an emotional majority

who believe the reasoned objections of the minority to be dictated by immoral selfishness.

Take the case of tax laws. Practical experience has shown the absolute necessity of taxing things rather than persons if we wish to make our fiscal system effective,— the principle of "stoppage at source," as it is technically called. Tax the corporation rather than the stockholders in the corporation, and then honest and dishonest will pay alike. Tax mortgaged real estate at its full value, and thus reach the lender indirectly, instead of trying to make him declare directly the amount of mortgage investments which he owns. But this violates the ideas of justice of people who cannot see indirect results, and wish to aim at direct ones. "What," they say, "let the money-lender escape taxation, and put the burden on the poor cultivator? or let the rich owner of shares in a corporation escape taxes, while his poor neighbor pays them on his home or his farm?" The economic laws by which taxes are paid indirectly these men cannot or will not see. In the direct pursuit of justice by a short cut they defeat their own ends. They pass a law compelling every man to declare his personal property, and pay taxes upon it. The personal property of widows and orphans and of a few exceptionally honest men is declared, and pays double or treble taxes, while the rest escapes. Of all the economic evils under which honest men suffer, few are more burdensome than those which arise from unintelligent attempts to secure equity in taxation.

Or take the case of currency legislation. Men who are moved with sympathy for the debtors in the present crisis think that a cheaper dollar would be an advantage. They see that a man who has a debt to pay could do it easier if there were more dollars in the country: they therefore advocate inflation in the interest of the debtor classes. This is all right for a man who has borrowed money and has a debt to pay. But how about the man who wants to borrow money for the future? The advocates of cheap money think that it will help him also, because there will be more dollars to borrow. But by the same token every borrower will want more dollars to do a given work. The borrower wants capital, not money. If there is fifty per cent. more money in the country, prices will go up fifty per cent.; and the borrower who before wanted a thousand dollars now wants fifteen hundred. He has thus received no gain from the increased supply of money. In fact, he actually loses; for the lender,

fearing danger from an insecure currency system, indemnifies himself by a high interest charge. The policy of playing with paper a generation ago and coquetting with silver to-day is responsible for perhaps two per cent. per annum in the interest rate,—a dead weight on debtors, a source of profit to speculators only.

The apparently enormous power of the government (which the emotional man usually confounds with the State) constitutes a great temptation to modern majorities. The good to be obtained by the exercise of power is so visible, the harm so indirect and invisible, that the man who lays stress on the latter is usually condemned as cold-blooded, if not immoral. People think of river and harbor bills as giving increased employment to labor, without seeing that increased taxation has put burdens on more useful labor in other lines. They talk lightly of creating an industry, when they simply divert labor and capital, usually at great loss, from one industry to another. They propose one restriction after another upon capital in its dealings with labor, in blindness to the fact that the competition of capital has been the powerful agency in raising wages, and that anything which stops this competition probably inflicts injury on labor beyond the power of government to repair. Well may the laborer, no less than the debtor, pray to be delivered from his friends.

It would be a very incomplete presentation of the subject which should look at the dangers of one extreme only, and ignore those of the other. Intellectual as well as emotional classes have their faults, which they are too apt to overlook. In the first place the popular confusion of reasoning and selfishness has this basis of fact, that there are far wider possibilities of selfishness to the intellectual man than to the emotional one. The latter finds it harder to avoid the consequences of his own wrong acts. The emotional soldier runs away in a panic, and gets killed. The intellectual one may run away craftily, and preserve himself at the expense of his fellows. The emotional man strikes his neighbor, and is put in prison. The intellectual man may take a more malicious revenge by means for whose use no law can punish him. Even the moderate degree of intellect involved in not getting drunk creates possibilities of deceit and malice for which the carouser renders himself incapable. The striking statistical fact that so many great criminals are total abstainers results naturally from the circumstance

that the path of the criminal is so beset with dangers that few can attain to the bad eminence of greatness in this field unless they put restraint on some of their physical appetites.

Again, even supposing reason to be exercised unselfishly, there is danger of error in its application which men of the purely intellectual type are too apt to underrate. This danger, like the previous one, is most conspicuous among those who are just beginning to feel the power of reason and have not yet realized its limitations. It is a perpetual problem for those who have charge of teaching sociology in institutions of learning to know how to train people to reason without teaching them to underrate sentiment and emotion.

The application of Darwinism to social phenomena is of great help to teachers in this matter. As long as the moral sentiments were treated as intuitions of absolute truth, there was no middle ground on which intuitionist and empiricist could meet. Either sentiment was absolute and science must conform to it, or science was absolute and sentiment must get out of the way. But Darwin has shown how the authority of sentiment and the authority of science rest on the same fundamental basis. To a Darwinian the existence of a moral sentiment furnishes the strongest presumptive evidence of its right to exist. If we instinctively look at things in a certain way, it is because our ancestors have experienced the preservative power of looking at things in that way, and not in another. Those who did so survived, those who did not do so were destroyed. But the Darwinian also sees, especially in modern times, a no less marked preservative advantage to the man or to the race which can calculate the consequences of its action. This habit of calculating consequences, which constitutes reason, is justified by the same kind of criterion as the habit of obeying unselfish impulses, which constitutes morality. When the results of the impulse and the calculations come into conflict, as they occasionally do, we have a means of finding, on this basis of preservative power, a common ground for comparing their respective merits. The subject-matter of these conflicts is so complicated that we cannot always hope for agreement even after the fullest discussion; but we have at any rate a basis on which an approach to such understanding is possible, instead of a war of eternal cross-purposes.

And meantime it has come to pass that teachers and philanthropists stand nearer to one another to-day than they did twenty years

ago. The teacher is learning that his conclusions are of little value, and their practical applications dangerous, unless he includes the whole man in the scope of his study. His work is less abstract and partial than it was a generation ago. On the other hand, the philanthropist is learning that obvious results and intentions are not the most important things to take into account; that he must use scientific methods and follow out indirect results, unless he would have his work superficial or self-destructive. As a representative of economic science, I welcome this meeting of the Conference of Charities and Correction under the shadow of university walls as emblematic of the growing union between two classes of workers for the same end, who have sometimes stood in apparent antagonism in the past, but are coming together to-day, and must continue to come more closely together for all time.

SOCIOLOGY IN SCHOOLS AND COLLEGES:

ITS FEASIBILITY AND PROBABLE RESULTS.

BY PROFESSOR H. H. POWERS, SMITH COLLEGE, NORTHAMPTON, MASS.

My subject can be more exactly stated in the form of a question. Is it possible to teach sociology in schools lower than the university; and, if we do so, will it do more good than harm? I distinctly exclude the university from this discussion, because to include it would greatly change and enlarge the problem. The distinction between the college and the university has, however, never been clearly drawn; and lawless American usage has, unfortunately, done much to confuse it. Many so-called universities are quite without claim to the title, while some colleges have attained to no small degree of the university character. Not to be misled by names, I will adopt a distinction which is convenient for my purpose, and for which I claim no farther validity. The university is an institution whose chief functions are: first, to give technical instruction to those about to enter the higher professions; and, second, to further scientific investigation. The instructor is supposed to be an investigator, and

to have time allowed him for investigation. He is, or should be, of a different type of mind from the college professor,— more creative, with greater power of observation and original inference.

The function of the college is quite distinct. It aims at general instruction in existing knowledge as a means of culture. Its functionaries must be, first of all, teachers, with large power to master and in turn to transmit what has been elsewhere discovered and formulated. The simple amount of teaching required of them is sufficient to prevent extensive investigation, quite apart from special aptitudes. They are not necessarily inferior men; but they are, or ought to be, different men. I repeat that this distinction hardly applies to existing institutions in America. Our colleges do more or less university work, and sometimes grant their professors university privileges; while all our universities have a collegiate department which absorbs too large a part of their energies. My distinction is, therefore, one of predominant function, which will probably become more distinctive as time goes on.

It may at first seem strange that I have grouped together colleges, academies, seminaries, and high schools; but in the sense just noted the classification is plainly natural. These lesser schools are colleges in miniature,— schools in which to teach and learn, not to investigate, or train men for special professions. They differ only in degree from the college, both in theory and fact.

There can be no question as to the place of sociology in the university. The phenomena of society certainly deserve investigation; and, in so far as special professions are based on a knowledge of these phenomena, appropriate training should be provided. In fact, under other and less appropriate names, this work has long been partially carried on. But it does not follow as a matter of course that sociology should be taught in colleges and high schools. The vast majority of subjects claiming university attention can never claim more than this, such as most languages, living or dead, the more highly specialized sciences, and those affecting conduct remotely or not at all. Does sociology belong in this list, or in the much smaller list chosen for instruction with a view to general culture or membership in advanced society?

This brings us to the question, What is sociology? Without entering upon the recent discussion on this subject, I will merely explain that I use the term in its most comprehensive sense, as the science

of human association. Among the innumerable phenomena thus included, there are, first of all, certain principles or laws which underlie every phase of association, be it church or corporation or family or State. These principles which practical people dimly perceive, and intuitively obey as the condition of their success, it is the first task of sociology to analyze, formulate, and make the subject of conscious knowledge. This study of "social elements and first principles" which Professor Giddings has called "sociology," I will call "general sociology," to designate its fundamental character.

Coming now to certain special forms of association, we have a group of sciences already familiar. Association in industry gives us economics; in government, politics; in the church, ecclesiastics, etc. These together we may for convenience call special sociology. There is still another group of studies more or less bound up with the others, and difficult to characterize. They involve questions of practical procedure, of reforms to be secured, and the means for bringing them about. Growing out of economics, we have the tariff question, building and loan association movements, the sweating problem, etc.; out of politics, civil service and municipal reform, problems of pauperism, etc. The phenomena involved in these smaller departments of social activity are essentially economic, political, etc., and are all susceptible of as exact and dispassionate analysis as any social phenomena; but, as a matter of fact, they have been subjected to a mixed process, which gives these studies a peculiar character. To many people they seem pre-eminently practical, while others disparage them as unscientific,— two sadly abused terms. In discussions of the tariff, civil service reform, etc., there is usually more of advocacy than of inquiry; and this is combined with much cutting of Gordian knots which science has failed to untie. It is this phase of the science which especially commends itself to many, and which, in its application to social evils, is the popular idea of sociology. It is easy to pass extreme judgment on this semi- or pseudo-science. To the dispassionate investigator it must seem unsatisfactory, while to those who are smarting under social evils it has the great advantage of getting somewhere quick. The social physician must often, in urgent cases, prescribe a remedy, while as yet an exhaustive diagnosis is not possible; but it is this very necessity which keeps social medicine from being scientific. This, however, does not justify the supercilious attitude which

scientists have often assumed toward these useful efforts. Men had to digest food and even cure indigestion before there were any physiologists to tell them how, and society has to do many difficult things which as yet the sociologist has not explained. These studies, therefore, piece out the fragmentary results of science with shrewd guesses and intuitive wisdom, and furnish to social procedure a basis to stand on,— a most important service. They are in no invidious sense unscientific, but rather pre-scientific; for they all grow out of the fact that sociology constantly has orders ahead for more science than it can furnish. Without insisting here on any very fundamental distinction, we may conveniently designate these numerous studies of mixed character by the term Applied Sociology.

Before we are ready to inquire intelligently what place should be given to sociology in a scheme of general education, we must ask what services are to be expected of a science that is to do duty in this position of special honor. Apparently, all such services are reducible to two.

The first is the development of the mind. Those who have no conception of the laws and the need of mental development have so often thought of education as mere stuffing that educators have inevitably been driven to extreme opposition, and have extolled the disciplinary value of studies as though that were the only thing of importance. That it is of importance is now conceded; but there is still much disagreement as to the kind of discipline which different studies furnish, and the relative value of each particular kind. I think, however, that one or two things more are now fairly conceded. First, discipline is an attribute, not of specific subjects, but of honest study and skilful teaching. The fact most seriously affecting the relative value of different subjects is their maturity of development and their social backing. Beyond this each subject has its peculiar flavor, about the relative merits of which it is as idle to discuss as about the perfume of flowers or the taste of fruits. "De gustibus nil disputandum."

Second, education gives us knowledge. Much as the value of facts has been exaggerated to the neglect of faculties, it will not do to ignore their importance, or to be indifferent to the nature of the facts which we use to exercise minds upon. Here it cannot for a moment be denied that subjects differ widely. Dead languages and

barbaric languages and occult sciences may be valuable subjects to study simply because, as a means of discipline, many things are worth studying that are not worth knowing. But, undeniably, some things are not only worth studying, but worth knowing, too. Some knowledge distinctly conditions human conduct, and other knowledge does not. Other things being equal, it is better for us to develop our wits on the former than on the latter.

We need not trouble ourselves as to whether sociology will provide mental discipline or not. Aside from the general claim already mentioned, it is peculiar in the variety of its subject-matter, the range of difficulty which its problems present with relations from the simplest to the most complex, its appeal to observation, and its free use of both inductive and deductive methods. But, waiving all special claims in this quarter, I come to the important questions involved. Would instruction in sociology be useful to high-school and college students, and to society through them? and, second, would such instruction be feasible?

Assumptions are dangerously easy in such an inquiry. Like most questions, this has two sides. It is only one phase of a larger question on which men are by no means agreed. This is a point in the fundamental philosophy of society.

There are those who claim that a society, to be natural, must be unconscious of its own functions. Spontaneous combinations, tacit agreements, unconscious adjustments,— these alone are natural and felicitous. Society, therefore, requires nothing so much as to be let alone, and can in no way lose so much as by becoming self-conscious and introspective. Interference is sacrilege.

To others nothing seems so fitting or natural as this tendency of society toward consciousness. They regard all unconscious arrangements as imperfect and provisional, waiting for the fulness of time to come when man shall enter into his birthright, and human intelligence shall make beneficent what nature only tries to make tolerable. To such there is no necessary morality in so-called natural adjustments. Acquiescence is superstition.

Now it is both the inevitable result and the avowed purpose of sociology to produce this very social consciousness. It can hardly be profitable, therefore, if this is a mistake. A few take middle ground, it is true, favoring a knowledge of social processes, but deprecating interference; but this is, of all positions, the most untenable.

The very fact of consciousness makes action of the unconscious type impossible. There is no such thing as consciousness and non-interference, for consciousness is itself an interference. When the somnambulist wakes up, his previous performances become impossible. A general study of sociology would paralyze the old spontaneous social activities. There is plainly no alternative but to leave society in self-ignorance or to acquiesce in its reconstruction. Our attitude toward sociology must plainly depend on our social philosophy, though here as elsewhere we may claim our sacred privilege of inconsistency.

I cannot now discuss the claims of these two philosophies; and, fortunately, I do not need to. The logic of events sometimes dispenses with much logic of the other kind. Society has not waited to learn our preferences, but has chosen for weal or for woe the Delphic motto for its own. Self-consciousness, self-criticism, and the most audacious projects of self-improvement have lost all novelty to us. Moreover, consciousness with all its consequences is a malady that is self-propagating. Men have begun with a will to doctor society, and their ardor is on the increase. Now this may all be wrong. Perhaps they might better let it alone, but I hardly think any hope they will. If so, there hardly seems to be room for two opinions as to the place of sociology. A knowledge of social structure is necessary to those who practise social surgery, for those who hope for no good from such efforts will agree with Spencer that they have infinite possibilities of mischief. Sociology, then, becomes necessary in self-defence. And, if the other party are right, if there are no harmonies until man makes them, no perfection till he dreams it, plans it, shapes it, how overwhelming becomes the demand for this same study!

The next question is, Who should be the depositories of this knowledge? The answer is plainly, Those who are engaged in the task of social reconstruction. In our day and country that is pretty much everybody. Of course there is an élite of intelligence in this as in all things. There never has been and never can be a complete democracy, but there is plainly an increasing one. The devices which the fathers provided against democracy have availed little. We are no longer guided by wise men. We are guided by wise men's wisdom after we have reviewed it, and decided that it is wisdom. An increasing proportion of our people are fairly independent in their thought and vigorous in their assertion of their convictions.

These men, common human men, without their knowledge or consent, come into the world charged with the awful responsibility of managing interests compared with which the tasks of the old gods of Olympus were but as children's play.

It is trite to say that these men never see a university, most of them not even a college. Few enough will learn so much of society as is taught in the high school. The provision made for such study is in strange contrast with the extent of the emergency, and is explainable only by the suddenness with which the emergency has been thrust upon us. It takes time for such adjustments. There is virtually no instruction in any line of social science in any school below the college in our country. In the colleges the omissions are as conspicuous as the recognition. I will merely illustrate. Economics is most often taught, but usually only in the last year of the course, and often as an appendage to history,— an arrangement even less adequate than the now forgotten scheme of making physics and chemistry an appendage to the department of mathematics. But economics enjoys an enviable pre-eminence over kindred subjects. It seems incredible that in a democracy colleges should so generally think politics an unnecessary subject of instruction, and that schools supported by the State should not mention the art or the duties of citizenship. Dishonest and bungling political action is an inevitable result. There is scarcely a mention of the subjects which interest this Conference. So important a social institution as the family is seldom mentioned, even in colleges, though apparently there is no general surfeit of intelligence or practical wisdom on the subject. And in all these matters, so profoundly concerning human welfare, change is impending or in progress: the spell of tradition is broken. Delphic and Hebrew oracles no longer settle questions of social procedure; and society stands like Pharaoh, bewildered with his dream of things to come, waiting for a Joseph to put meaning into mystery, and, in anticipation of what shall be, to reorganize the helpless State.

But all this means simply that there is need, perhaps absolute need, of greater intelligence and social wisdom with a view to the conscious direction of society. Unfortunately, the necessary is not always the possible. Numberless organisms and species have perished for lack of conditions indispensable to their existence and progress. Especially when conditions change rapidly is the failure

to meet requirements frequent and disastrous. The wrecks that are strewn along the course of the survival of the fittest are a constant reminder that no individual or class is insured against failure. The question, therefore, whether modern society, as it hurls itself headlong and heedless into new conditions, will find what it needs, is to be answered, not by a deduction from our optimism, but by an inquiry into facts. This brings us to our final question,— How far is the sociological instruction, which seems so necessary, feasible under existing conditions?

My answer must be somewhat less encouraging than I could wish. Our schools labor under great limitations, which can only slowly disappear.

First of all, the teachers are usually not specialists, either by temperament or training; nor can they be to any large extent. As a result, we are obliged to secure specialization through text-books; and these must be such as will pretty much teach themselves, at least at first.

The American Economic Association at its last meeting discussed the question of teaching economics in the public schools; and, in response to the inevitable question, Where will you find a suitable text-book? a prominent member gave it as his opinion that no text-book was needed,— teachers should be employed who were so familiar with the subject that they could teach it entirely by discussion. In other words, we should adopt the method of Socrates and Plato, and provide Plato and Socrates for the work. The suggestion was amazingly naïve. If the Association had been asked to furnish not twenty thousand, but twenty teachers competent to do the work in this way, it could not have done so; and, with all possible encouragement and effort for a generation, it could not have supplied one twentieth of the schools with such teachers as this. It is easy to use up an hour in rambling talk with a class on such subjects; but without a text-book to lead a class in an orderly discussion, and bring it to something, is a very difficult thing. Whatever might or should be, no science has been or is disseminated without being first embodied in available text-books. A shrewd and observing biologist recently remarked that there was now to be a comparative lull in biological investigation, that for a decade or two the great biologists would vie with each other in writing text-books. The science had reached the text-book stage, having much that was ready

for general dissemination and requiring a larger hold on public sympathy as a basis for future operations. This illustrates the principle I have mentioned. Unfortunately, the production of good text-books is impossible until a vast amount of investigation, formulation, and sifting has been done,— a process which sometimes seems to be needlessly deliberate and to quite set at naught the needs of practical instruction.

A second difficulty in the way of sociology in our schools is the conservatism of society, enforced by the disagreeable consequences which attend half-knowledge. The chief of these is a kind of awkwardness, even at times an arrest of action, due to an unwonted consciousness. Awkwardness is born of consciousness. The individual blunders and suffers in the conscious doing of things which before he knew about them went off smoothly enough. As Myron Reed once put it, "When a boy has got seventy-five cents' worth of cheap physiology, he feels so fearfully and wonderfully made that he can't get over a fence." Something of this same result is noticed in those who become conscious of relations between themselves and society, which they had not realized; and the same thing is noticed regarding society as this consciousness becomes general. It is best illustrated and most keenly felt in the case of women, especially young women, as they encounter in a meaningful way some phase of the all-pervasive relation of sex. There is embarrassment and discomfort, for the victim and for others; and the repugnance makes itself felt as a vigorous protest. For younger pupils the protest is particularly strong; for the kitten-like unconsciousness of youth is prized not only for its beauty, but as a safeguard to morals. It cannot be denied that this difficulty is a real one. It is unfortunate that our only opportunity to teach the great majority of men in such matters is during their extreme youth, when their immaturity prevents the best results. But it is easy to exaggerate these difficulties. Discomfort is not dangerous, if not too prolonged; and most of the annoying accompaniments of this study are purely transitional. Embarrassment, awkwardness, and discomfort in the individual and in society are merely a prelude to a new equilibrium, more stable than the first. But, when all is said, there will remain a limit to the amount which can be offered to students in our schools. Until more years of the average man's life are devoted to education, some most important things must be omitted; and sociology will be one of the sufferers.

In curious contrast with the objection just noted is the one urged by certain radicals in the name of sociology itself. They are dissatisfied with the work now being done because it seems to discourage reform.

A knowledge of the magnitude and complexity of the causes of social phenomena tends to disparage panaceas and all hasty efforts for social improvement. However much we may believe in the control of social evolution by reason and human effort, a study of society cannot but convince us that changes must be slow, to be either wholesome or permanent, and that effort spent on merely proximate causes is ineffectual. These conclusions are not agreeable to those who organize crusades. It is one of the painful incidents of science that the student is so often called upon to part company with the reformer. The fervid appeals and enthusiastic championship by which he seeks to enlist men into a grand reforming mob grate harshly on the ears of one who sees the difficulties of bettering society, while the other sees only its desirability. After a few vain attempts to inoculate a little science into these reformers while they are charging at double quick, the student is apt to give up the attempt, and to seem henceforth unfriendly to reform. As bearing on our problem, I may mention temperance education. There has been a wide-spread and successful demand that instruction should be given in the schools as to the effect of alcohol on the system. I think it not hazardous to assume that, had that instruction been rigorously confined to what was known and scientifically demonstrated on the subject, the temperance people would have esteemed it of doubtful value.

Here, again, the conflict is a real one, and the objection not unfounded. Science does unnerve much wholesome activity. A young woman recently told me that she had intended to devote her life to work for the poor, but that, after studying the problem of charity in my class, she had about given up the plan. It is needless to say that her conclusion was not a legitimate inference from my lectures, but it was a typical transition result. Of course, it may be said, on the other side, that reform without science is vain, that many philanthropic schemes need to be discouraged, and that the whole process is simply a clearing of the ground of tares, in order that wheat may grow. Unfortunately, some wheat is pretty sure to be plucked up with the tares. Plainly, we have but one way out of

the difficulty. Science must sooner or later have free course, and accomplish her work, whatever that be. But for the present there is a conflict between the stern necessity of doing something and the difficulty of knowing what to do.

This aversion to sociology joins with a perversion of it which comes from a different source. I refer to the general desire for rules of thumb. The practical man wants hard-and-fast rules of procedure. This demand is more dangerous than open opposition. Nothing so discredits a science as to transform its principles into concrete rules of action, assumed to be of general application. To affirm that a thing should always be done in a particular way encounters the difficulty that, owing to complicating circumstances, it should often be done in some other way. It is one thing to say that a principle is of universal application. It is quite another thing to insist upon an undeviating mode of procedure. The elevation of the principles enunciated by Ricardo — principles in the main correct, though incomplete — into uncompromising rules of action discredited economics in England for half a century. Principles seem so complicated, vague, and difficult, rules so simple, plain, and easy. The reverse is the fact. Principles are the elements, rules the endlessly complex compounds into which principles enter in ever-varying proportions. Education consists not in memorizing rules, always of local and temporary application at best, but in learning principles and mastering the art of rule-manufacture. This confusing of rules and principles is the bane of all our education. Not long ago my boy manifested a growing dislike and incapacity for mathematics. Being unwilling to believe that the difficulty was congenital or hereditary, I examined into the matter; and, finding where he was, I propounded an example to him,—"How many eggs could you buy for fifteen cents at twenty cents a dozen?" He promptly replied, "Fifteen times twenty"; and, when I reproved him rather sharply for so thoughtless a reply, he protested, "Why, papa, teacher says, whenever it says 'how many,' we are to multiply." Here was a rule devised to help over some page of examples without reference to the danger of its farther application. It was an educational atrocity. But such atrocities can be far more easily perpetrated in sociology than in mathematics, the danger of detection being less.

In view of these limitations, how far can sociology now be taught in our schools? General sociology hardly at all as yet. It has great

possibilities, but, so far, not much more. The schools can only teach that which is fairly known and formulated, and so stated that it is accessible to untechnical teachers and students. Until sociology reaches the text-book stage of development, it must remain essentially a university study. But I see no reason to believe that sociology will be permanently incomprehensible to immature minds. I share the conviction that these laws of social growth and structure will prove to be of vast scope and importance, but I confidently look for the time when these great principles which are now the inspiration of a few shall be a commonplace of popular knowledge and an instinct of practical judgment.

Special sociology is more mature, though unequally so in its different branches; and even economics, by far the most advanced of all, can hardly be said to be ready for rapid and successful dissemination. It is approaching the text-book stage, however; and the next great economic achievement will perhaps be in that line. In all these branches, however, the schools are simply waiting on the university. The difficulties are not inherent in the subject, but incident to its incomplete development.

The recognition of sociology in our schools is hindered by serious, but not insuperable, obstacles. That it stands in a more vital relation to human welfare than those studies which have long had greater prominence is in itself a guarantee that these obstacles will be increasingly overcome, and that this crown of all the sciences, in which man's highest interests culminate, will eventually be accorded the largest place in those schools whose purpose is to fit men broadly for life. Nothing less than this superlative recognition will be adequate. In the progress which I gladly note there is a tendency to abandon the old scheme of squeezing history and economics into a single chair not large enough for either, and to give each of these subjects equal recognition with a score of others. But equality is not equity; uniformity is not proportion. I dislike to come into conflict with the established order. There is so much of wisdom in custom that custom easily passes current for wisdom. But it is indisputable that the traditional curriculum is not the result of a careful estimate and recognition of human interests, each in the measure of its importance; nor will it become so by any rule of departmental equality. Some things must increase, and others decrease, if there is to be symmetry in this counterpart of man's needs.

I hope I have not seemed to underestimate the difficulties of extensive instruction in sociology, or to exaggerate its importance. I wish, most of all, to emphasize the fact that society is rapidly becoming conscious of its own processes, and, as an inevitable result, is taking these processes under voluntary control. That this control may be beneficent or even endurable, it must be not only conscious and voluntary, but *intelligent*. Whether we can secure a knowledge of the structure and development of society sufficiently thorough and general for this purpose remains to be seen; but of one thing I think we may have no doubt; society, with its present self-conscious tendencies, will retrograde or perish if we do not.

THE STATISTICAL STUDY OF HEREDITARY CRIMINALITY.

BY PROFESSOR E. R. L. GOULD, UNIVERSITY OF CHICAGO.

In the statistical study of criminality we are not concerned with the object or the contents of statistical science, but with its methods. These methods are, briefly, enumeration, formulation of quantitative relationships, discernment of causality, and calculation of the probability or regularity of recurrence. Can such methods be applied to show the part which heredity plays in criminality? is the question we ask, and try to answer.

Statistical enumeration, the first and fundamental step in the process, can be applied only to concrete realities. The word "concrete" is not here synonymous with "material," but is used to indicate independent existence. Enumeration cannot take account of qualities by themselves, but only when attached to actual entities. Here, too, the purpose is, usually, simply to establish the presence or absence of the quality, though the degree of the intensity, as discernible to the enumerator, may be shown.

The first point to settle is whether or not heredity is a quality in the statistical sense. Considered as a part of the equipment of a certain class of criminals, it is conceived, as a compelling force, it is

not. Statistics assume to measure social forces, not in their dynamic power, but in quantitative appearance. They cannot measure the influence of heredity in the sphere of moral life, and hence are powerless to determine what quota of criminality is chargeable to this source, the very thing which criminologists wish to know.

There is another consideration worth mentioning here. Criminal statistics are not the same thing as the statistics of crime. The former are simply a record of convictions; they do not show the frequency of crime. Therefore, in any attempt to measure the full influence of heredity, part of the elements would be lacking. But this objection is conventional, not vital to the subject in hand.

In narrowing the problem down to an enumeration of criminal subjects on whom heredity has *probably* wielded an influence, the statistical method becomes capable of application. Yet we must not forget that in any enumeration the value of results depends largely upon the facility with which a particular quality may be recognized. There are wide variations of discernibility. For instance, "white," "colored," "male," "female," attached to persons, are easily recognizable. It is less easy to distinguish "old" and "young," because of varying physical conditions at equal ages and the difficulty of establishing a base-line. "Rich" and "poor" are harder still, because of the relativity of wealth and poverty. "Good" and "bad" present even greater obstacles; for, in any just appreciation on this score, motives must be considered as well as acts. "Heredity" is perhaps the hardest of all, for the reason that it is invisible, cannot always be presumed from acts, and is in reality a motive power. Furthermore, it is not an essential, but only an occasional quality in criminal action. Quantitative measurement being dependent to an unusual degree upon facile discernment, the intangibility of this element constitutes a serious difficulty. The anatomist cannot locate it, the moralist cannot always positively affirm its presence. Ought it, then, to seem remarkable if the statistician be not able to do much better?

Notwithstanding the difficulties of establishing heredity in criminal action, students of criminology have found a sufficient number of instances to make them feel that it figures to some extent. Probably every observant person is convinced on this point.

Postulating, then, the existence of heredity as a factor in criminality,— a quality attaching to an object,— theoretically there would

seem to be no reason why the statistical method is not competent to measure quantitatively, not dynamically, its occurrence.

The question is now restricted to devising practical means for obtaining the information.

Before answering the query outright, let us see if any cue is afforded in statistical publications. The criminal statistics of Germany, Austria, Hungary, Belgium, Denmark, Spain, France, England and Wales, Scotland, Ireland, Italy, Holland, Roumania, Sweden, Norway, and the United States, do not attempt to establish heredity by what we may consider fairly direct or conclusive evidence. Germany, Austria, Italy, and Sweden present the most complete individual and sociological records of criminals; and I have thought it worth while to illustrate their advanced practice by giving the main items of this information in parallel columns.

Italy.	Austria.	Germany.	Sweden.
Sex:	*Sex:*	*Sex:*	*Sex:*
Age: Under 14 years. 14–18. 18–21. 21–30. 30–40. 40–50. 50–65. 65 and upwards. Unknown.	*Age:* Under 16 years. 16–20. 20–30. 30–60. Over 60.	*Age:* Under 15 years. 15–18. 18–21. 21–25. 25–30. 30–40. 40–50. 50–60. 60–70. 70 and over. Unknown.	*Age:* Under 15 years. 15–18. 18–21. 21–30. 30–40. 40–50. 50–60. 60–70. Over 70. Unknown.
Conjugal Condition: Single. Married. Widowed. Unknown.	*Conjugal Condition:* Single. Married. Persons having been married.	*Conjugal Condition:* Single. Married. Persons having been married. Unknown.	*Conjugal Condition:* Single. Married. Persons having been married. Unknown.
Occupation: Persons living on their income, pensioners, members of liberal professions, artists, in the public service, priests, nuns, ministers, army and navy (officers and soldiers), other corporations	*Occupation:* Persons living on their income, public functionaries and teachers, officers, physicians, barristers, notaries, ecclesiastical persons (Catholics and others), men of letters, artists.	*Occupation:*	*Occupation:*

ITALY.	AUSTRIA.	GERMANY.	SWEDEN.
organized in military fashion (police, firemen, etc.).			
Agriculture, stock-raising, hunting: Proprietors, farmers, renters, laborers, etc.	Agriculture: Proprietors, farmers, principal employees, other employees, wage laborers.	Agriculture, forestry, hunting, fishing: Managers, associates, laborers: families of the preceding.	Agriculture: Proprietors, farmers, peasant proprietors, peasant tenants or laborers, regular or daily laborers, others.
Commerce, transportation, and navigation: Fishing, proprietors, managers, clerks, laborers, apprentices.	Commerce and industry: Proprietors, principal employees, subordinate employees, wage laborers.	Commerce and transportation: Subdivisions as above.	Commerce, transportation, and navigation: Distinguishing proprietors, salaried service, and wage-earning employees
Trade and industry: Employers, managers, clerks, workingmen, apprentices.			Industry and trade: Same subdivisions as above.
		In the service of the court and the public administration, liberal professions: families of the preceding.	Ecclesiastics, Employees of the State and local government: Principal employees, subordinate.
		Industry, mines, building trades: Managers, associates, laborers: families of the preceding.	Attached to metallurgical industries: Proprietors, managers, clerical assistants.
			Army and navy: Officers, non-commissioned officers, other military grades, soldiers.
			Teachers occupied professionally in science and art, medical service, servants, other individuals belonging to the laboring classes.
		Laborers, unclassified: families of the preceding.	
Domestic service.	Servants.	Domestic service: Members of family.	

ITALY.	AUSTRIA.	GERMANY.	SWEDEN
Persons without occupation or recipients of poor relief. Vagrants, prostitutes, beggars, etc. Occupation unknown.	Without occupation. Other occupations.	Having no occupation or not admitting any: Heads of the family, members of the family.	Occupation not given or without fixed occupation: Beggars, prisoners, others.
Nationality: Citizens, foreigners, unknown.	*Nationality:* Austrian subjects, Hungarian subjects, foreigners, unknown.	*Nationality:* Germans, foreigners.	*Nationality:* Swedish, foreign, unknown.
		Domicile: German empire (by 15 States), in foreign countries, unknown.	*Domicile:* In Sweden, in foreign countries, unknown.
Birth: Legitimate. Illegitimate. Unknown.			*Birth:* Status of birth: Born out of wedlock. *Place of Birth:* Born in the country, in the city, unknown.
Family Conditions: Having legitimate children. Having illegitimate children.	*Family Conditions:* Having legitimate children. Having illegitimate children.		
Degree of Education: Able to read or write imperfectly, able to read or write, able to read and write, having received advanced education, degree of education unknown.	*Degree of Education:* Illiterate as regards reading and writing, having received advanced education.		*Degree of Education:* Having had more or less complete education, knowing how to read and write, knowing how to read, but not write, knowing neither how to read nor write. *Religious Knowledge:* Good, passable, weak, none at all, not given.

ITALY.	AUSTRIA.	GERMANY.	SWEDEN.
Conditions as to Fortune: Indigent, earning a bare subsistence, possessing some means, living in affluence or riches.	*Conditions as to Fortune:* Without means, possessing some means, living in ease.		*Conditions as to Fortune:* Favorable, modest, very restricted, poverty, not indicated.
	Cumulative Offences:	*Cumulative Offences:* Condemned for one misdemeanor or crime, condemned for several misdemeanors or crimes of the same general sort.	
Previous Convictions: Convicted once. 2 to 5 times. 6 to 10 times. More than 10 times.	*Previous Convictions:* First offence. Convicted previously for misdemeanors, one previous conviction, several previous convictions.	*Previous Convictions:* One previous conviction for crime or misdemeanor, 2, 3–5, 6–10, unknown.	*Previous Convictions:* Number of individuals convicted for crimes who had been previously punished for the same kind of offence.
			Place of Sentence: In the country or city.
		Period between Release from Prison and Repetition of Offence: Less than 3 months, 3–6 months, 6 months to a year, more than a year, time unknown.	
	Religious Affiliation: Roman Catholics, Greek Catholics, Evangelical, Jews, belonging to other communions, having no religious profession.	*Religious Affiliation:* Evangelical, Roman Catholics, other Christian confessions, Jews, unknown.	
Combinations of previous information by sex, age, family conditions, etc.	Combinations of previous information by sex, age, family conditions, etc.	Combinations of previous information by sex, age, family conditions, etc.	Combinations of previous information by sex, age, family conditions, etc.

Such are the personal details given for individuals convicted for crimes or misdemeanors in these countries. Analyzing them carefully, it is seen that the facts contain nothing to show directly the influence of heredity. Indirectly, of course, it might be presumed that the same individual having been convicted a number of times, especially for the same offence, afforded an indication. Still, this is not direct evidence, because it is very possible that after the commission of the first offence self-respect was completely broken down, or that the unfortunate ex-prisoner found circumstances so much against him, and was made so to feel the power of ostracism, or received so little help in his efforts to regain social caste, that relapse was a logical alternative. Statistics showing the number of convictions suffered by the same person are of great importance in estimating the efficacy of penalties attached to certain offences, but they are of secondary interest to the moralist who seeks from them even a glimmering outline of heredity.

The most direct, if not the only practicable, method of connecting heredity with criminality is to ascertain the antecedents of the offender. An effort to do this does not appear from the present criminal statistics of leading countries. The attempt was made in France, and appropriate statistics were published during the ten-year period from 1851 to 1860. I am not able to learn why the experiment was abandoned; but the mere fact that it was not repeated elsewhere, and was given up in France, seems strong presumptive evidence that results were not considered valuable. The table on the opposite page gives the figures in detail.

The figures have only secondary value, because they refer to all persons tried, irrespective of conviction or acquittal.

The omission of European nations to incorporate information upon the family antecedents of criminals is the more remarkable when we consider that in Continental countries the police system has reached a degree of perfection which would render it a comparatively easy task to learn the necessary facts. Every important act of an individual's life is there a matter of public registry, to say nothing of private acts which are matters of police knowledge. An individual is followed during the whole course of his life by police observation, not necessarily offensively, but rather paternally. People are looked after in so far as their doings affect others; and a complete biographical statement, particularly for criminals, could easily be made.

Year.	Number of persons tried.	Accused persons belonging to families of which some member had been previously convicted for crimes or misdemeanors.	
		Number.	Proportion per 1,000.
1851	7,071	111	15
1852	7,096	101	14
1853	7,317	120	16
1854	7,556	128	17
1855	6,480	81	12
1856	6,124	79	13
1857	5,773	103	18
1858	5,375	75	14
1859	4,992	71	14
1860	4,651	90	19
Total	62,435	959	—
Annual average	6,243	96	16

Considering these facts, and the additional circumstance that France abandoned the publication of antecedents of criminals, I think we may not go far wrong in assuming that the results were not considered of scientific importance.

An attempt to obtain information regarding the antecedents of criminals in this country would be attended with very great difficulty. The court records of Continental countries are replete with information regarding the individual sentenced. In this country the usual practice, I understand, is to enter on the commitment paper which accompanies an offender to prison his name, the offence for which convicted, and the length of the sentence imposed. In the Maryland penitentiary the person is measured according to the Bertillon system, and is questioned by the warden or assistant as to his ability to read and write, to read only, whether he has ever attended Sunday-school or church, whether he has ever been bound out, and, if so, whether he served or left his master, whether convicted previously and the number of times convicted, whether married, single, or widowed, whether left an orphan, whether strictly temperate, a moderate drinker, occasionally intemperate, or habitually intemperate. A record is also made of the person's color and sex. This is fairly representative of the information gathered in other similar

institutions. It is more complete than in some of them. If a query were added with the object of finding out whether any member of the person's family had ever been convicted for crime, the probability of obtaining correct answers would not be very great. Furthermore, there would be absolutely no method of verifying statements such as exists abroad.

In American prisons the only practicable way to ascertain the antecedents of prisoners would be through the chaplain. If he is fitted for his position, he holds the respect and confidence of the great majority of the unfortunates with whom he comes in contact. He would have to exercise tact, and undoubtedly even then the responses given would not in all cases be accurate. Some would answer incorrectly for the mere pleasure of fooling him; while others, if they thought their personal responsibility would be in any wise relieved by presenting a shady ancestry, would undoubtedly be tempted to do so. On the whole, it is probable that really reliable results would not be achieved under this method, even though it seems to be the only one practicable. Nevertheless, a positive prediction should not be made until it is given a fair trial.

The investigation of antecedents in this fashion furnishes at best a probability. To establish a case, the sociologist would need to consider such statistical data his raw material, and work back through family history, as the authors of "The Jukes Family" and "The Tribe of Ishmael" have done. This simple statistical basis is not broad enough. Apparent motives, the living environment of the culprit, his habits, his mental and physical condition when the offence occurred, must receive due weight in any valid conclusion. Statistical data alone can barely be considered indicative; they cannot in any sense be considered positive.

Temperamental heredity has so far exclusively enlisted our attention. But there is another, the physical, which plays a certain part. Congenital defects of the body are adjudged responsible for impaired moral vision on the basis of their frequent existence in criminals of specified types. The universal adoption of the Bertillon system of measurement would have inconceivable value in this direction. Anthropometry, a distinctively statistical branch, is only awaiting the assured dicta of craniology upon the relation of malformation to defective mental and moral perceptions, in order to furnish a wealth of knowledge upon physical heredity.

Heredity — I mean heredity of temperament and proclivity — is a factor in all individual life. It makes no difference whether this be chargeable to the indiscretion of our lamented ancestor Adam, or whether man in his inevitable evolutionary differentiation has simply failed to shed the quality. He who best knows himself cannot estimate its full influence. He may even be unconscious of its existence until revealed by circumstance. Yet why offer it more as an apology for turpitude than as an excuse for goodness?

Personally, I regret that the statistical study of hereditary criminality is hedged about with extreme difficulties. I wish we could get a clear apprehension of the facts. Were this possible, I believe that views which now pass for scientific would be labelled morbid and sentimental.

There is great danger in emphasizing heredity, and by contrast minimizing the influences of environment and individual responsibility. Consequences doubly unfortunate must ensue. Individual stamina will be weakened, and society made to feel less keenly the duty of reforming environment. Is it not far better to postulate freedom of choice than to preach the doctrine of a fettered will, and so elevate criminality into a propitiatory sacrifice?

THE RELATION OF UNIVERSITIES TO CHARITY AND TO REFORMATORY WORK.

BY WILLIAM H. BREWER, OF YALE UNIVERSITY.

The most obvious function of universities is to conserve the knowledge of the past and impart it to youth. They are, however, not merely the conservators and dispensers of knowledge; they are pre-eminently the sources of science itself. Most of our modern science has originated in them as well as emanated from them. While it is true that many discoveries have been made outside the schools, it is equally true that the principles involved in these discoveries have been investigated and the laws governing them have been deduced and formulated within the higher institutions of learning.

The universe is governed by law. Science investigates the ways

of nature, and deduces the laws governing her work. These laws are God's laws; and man's work, to be successful, must be in accordance with them. The closer the accordance, the more effective the work. As regards our physical work, no one disputes this; but all do not yet see that it is as true of work in charity and correction as it is in engineering, manufactures, and agriculture.

The most characteristic features of our modern Christian civilization, distinguishing it from that of the previous centuries, are those which have been stamped upon it by modern science. The application of scientific methods to the solution of economic problems constitutes the distinguishing feature of the industries of to-day as contrasted with their condition a century ago, and the growth of the physical sciences constitutes the distinctive feature of modern intellectual progress.

The most obvious effect of this growth of science is the enormous increase in material wealth which has recently taken place, and which has been greater in a single lifetime than the accumulations of all the previous ages had amounted to.

This, I say, is the most obvious effect; but there are others less obvious, but perhaps even more important to our race. The marvellous inventions which have been the result of the growth of the physical sciences so dazzle us that we are apt not to see the other and more beneficent results. We have achieved a mastery over the forces of nature which our ancestors never dreamed of. Man has even harnessed the lightning to his chariot. The fact is none the less wonderful because this chariot is the prosaic and useful street-car. The application of scientific methods to the investigation of more purely intellectual problems has been as marked, although less obvious to the public. The modern advances made in the study of language are a good illustration.

The universities have been a leading factor in this revolution in industry and thought. One science after another has been added to the curriculum of studies, and through them new learned professions have been given to the world. Many of you can remember when there were but "the three learned professions," divinity, law, and medicine; when no one spoke of an engineer or a chemist as belonging to a learned profession. Now educated men in many vocations are recognized as in the "professions." The electrical engineer and the chemist are as truly in "learned profes-

sions" as is a village lawyer or doctor or clergyman. New professions, requiring special training in colleges and universities, have grown up, as each science in its turn has come into use for its practical applications in the useful arts.

Social science is the last science to take form, and it is therefore fitting that this Conference of Charities and Correction should meet with the universities for mutual help and guidance. It is especially fitting that you should meet with Yale, which has been such a prominent school of pure science since the very earliest years of the century, and which was the pioneer among the colleges of this country in making original investigations and giving instruction in some departments of technology.

And let us both keep in mind that such a meeting as this is for *mutual* help. You can help us now more than we can help you; but the day is coming when it will be the other way,— when charitable and reformatory institutions will look to the universities for instruction in the laws and principles which govern their work, as confidently as the engineer, the mechanician, and the agriculturist do now.

In the industrial world the necessity of instruction in the sciences is recognized and conceded. At first the universities cultivated and taught only the pure sciences. Now students throng them for instruction in both pure and applied science.

I use the term "pure science" in the same sense in which it is used in common speech, as that form of science which is pursued for its own sake,— the search for laws and principles as a branch of intellectual culture, the pursuit of truth for the love of it, regardless of its practical uses in the useful arts.

As already said, our modern material progress has been due to applied science, and our modern intellectual progress mostly due to the pursuit of pure science. Historically, sometimes the pure science has preceded the arts based upon it. Electricity had to be scientifically studied before we could possibly have either the electric telegraph, electro-plating, the telephone, the dynamo, the electric light, or the electric motor. Scientific investigations were made in the laboratories of colleges and universities for a hundred years before a successful electric telegraph was invented, and for nearly half a hundred more before the electric light or the electric motor could be made.

But such has not been the history of all the technical sciences. In some cases a highly developed art long preceded the applied science. Iron and steel were made ages before the science of chemistry was founded. We make no better iron to-day than did the barbarians long ago; but, so soon as there were the sciences of chemistry and metallurgy, the art immediately expanded. The making of iron and steel is still an art; but not until science came to its help was it possible to have steel rails spanning the continent or iron ships crossing the sea.

The marvellous growth in our industries has been correlated with that of our colleges and universities. It has been a mutual growth. Neither could have so developed alone. The universities have been the leaders in the sense that science has been developed in them, and from them is diffused outward among the people and downward into the intermediate and primary schools, and even below.

The fountain-head of the applied sciences is the university, with its departments of engineering, chemistry, agriculture, biology, and the various courses in pure science and technical studies. When I entered Yale as a student, forty-seven years ago, instruction in the applied sciences was but just beginning in a few of the more progressive schools. Now there is not a State in the Union without colleges with their departments of technical science, and where there are not extensive facilities for both the advance of the physical sciences and instruction in their technical applications.

So it must and will be in respect to this new department of social science. Charities and correction have been practised as arts from the dawn of civilization. Now we are just beginning to study them by scientific methods. To a limited extent as good success may attend this work, prosecuted purely as an art, and guided by sentiments of humanity, as will be done by the aid of science, just as the Damascus blade was purely a work of art, and science has not improved it. But, just as the art which made that sword could not furnish the material for the stupendous structures of our modern times, so the old methods of dispensing charity and managing the delinquent cannot successfully deal with the enormous demands of the present day in these matters. Formerly the poor and unfortunate perished by thousands from neglect and pestilence, and multitudes of criminals were executed. Now they are preserved and accumulate, until the burden and expense are among the most serious our present civilization has to bear.

The efficient and economical management of charities and correction on the scale we have now to deal with must be conducted as an applied science, founded on natural laws.

In the development of this new science the universities and their professors can aid. But, as an applied science, you, not the professors, are in charge of the laboratories where the material operated upon exists, and where the observations go on and are recorded. The various organizations for dispensing charity, the schools for instructing the neglected and defective, the places of correction, are all laboratories of investigation in this new science.

Charity is the lowest section of this department. It began with humanity itself, and its work has been the most widely and most crudely carried on. But it is by no means the simplest, although some of its results under crude methods have been brilliant as well as beneficent. But it never before was conducted on such a stupendous scale nor under such social and political conditions as now, nor where misdirection would produce such wide-spread evils. It must be directed along lines marked by the fixed laws of nature, that the lower strata of mankind may be bettered as well as helped; that the instinct of charity may not by perversion become a curse to the race, increasing its lower stratum at the expense of the better part of mankind.

The newer and better method can best be brought about by the co-operation of the universities with the workers in the field. You are now doing much more than we are; but I believe and trust that the time is near when our aid in your work will be as great as it has been in the material industries,—when we can and shall help you as truly as we do now the machinist, the manufacturer, the farmer, and the stock-breeder.

And this last term suggests another thought, because in my professional work I have given much study to it. Stock-breeding is one of our greatest industries, and thousands of millions of capital are invested in it. It supplies a very large percentage of the food of the civilized world. For ages it was successfully practised as an art merely, but of late, under the influence of biological science, has had a new impulse, and with wonderful results. With a better knowledge of the laws of heredity, our flocks and herds have increased enormously in numbers, but even more in excellence. Our horses are swifter, our sheep better woolled, our beef more

tender and quicker grown, our milk richer and more economically produced. As a result, we are better clothed, and the tables of all the people, from the richest to the poorest, better supplied. This has come about by a better knowledge of the laws of heredity; and year by year we hear more and more of the relation of heredity to the classes of society you are dealing with. As applied to the breeding of our domestic animals, we have laws formulated and reasonably well understood. And these same laws apply to mankind. As regards the defective, the matter is already well understood by the expert. As I listened to your discussions over the feeble-minded and the sad facts relating to their origin, I was impressed anew by the facts you stated.

There are breeds of men as truly as there are breeds of horses; and much, if not indeed most, of your work relates to the care and training of the poorer breeds of mankind. Of the ninety-six thousand idiots and feeble-minded in our country, an enormous proportion are so by heredity, have been bred so from idiotic and weak-minded parents. It is not an uncommon thing in our poorhouses to find idiot paupers of two, three, and even four generations' growth. A wider diffusion of scientific knowledge and a more enlightened public sentiment will greatly reduce their number in the coming century.

So, too, of our criminals; several factors are involved, of which heredity is one. We are not obliged to keep a standing army to protect us from a foreign foe; but we have an ever-present foe at home, which costs us more than any foreign one. Because of crime, we have to maintain a great standing army of police, with the incident courts and places of punishment, all of which are enormously expensive. Our charities and corrections cost us much more than war; and, under our present system, or rather practice,— for we have no system,— it is increasing so rapidly that, if it continues, it will swamp our civilization.

If the cost of crime, pauperism, and the care of the defective continues to increase (as it has of late) in a greater ratio than does the population, it is simply a question of time before the one will overtake the other. This is a mathematical certainty; and it means that, unless stopped, it is sure to become a greater burden than even our prosperous civilization can bear.

This increase will only be checked by a more rational and scientific treatment of the problem. The methods must be scientific in

their principles, and must look to prevention rather than cure. In this we can learn a lesson from the history of public sanitation.

I have long been a student in sanitary science, and for twenty-three years been on health boards, and for the latter half of that time one of the managers of our county temporary home for neglected children. There are many points of resemblance between the application of sanitary science and this new science which is now just coming into shape.

Public sanitation has been practised from remote antiquity, and a sanitary code was promulgated along with a criminal code in the laws of Moses. But it has done its greatest work, had its grandest triumphs, and been most beneficial to the race only during the last few years, and since there has been a sanitary science pursued and studied for its own sake, with its laboratories for investigation and its trained investigators, they have discovered the causes of pestilential disease, and evolved the laws on which the practice and methods of public sanitation are now founded. Until this was done there had been but little advance made since the days of Moses. Now pestilence has been robbed of its terrors, not by the cure of disease, but by its prevention.

So it will be in charities and correction. Prevention rather than cure must be the leading aim. Vicious instincts must be controlled by beginning with the young, charity lessened by making men more efficient and self-reliant, and reform, not vengeance, be the leading idea in our prisons. This will surely come when our charitable and penal institutions come under the domain of science, when we would no more think of paying political debts by making the political "heeler" warden of a prison or keeper of an almshouse than we would think of putting him on a locomotive to run that, or choose him to plan and lay out a railroad.

In this direction public opinion must be educated. There must be a popular demand, founded on knowledge, that our charitable and penal institutions be conducted on scientific principles, as well as guided by religion and humanity. With the aid of the universities in formulating the laws and training students in the theories involved, I believe that the time is rapidly coming when these public institutions will be in the hands of trained experts, and the practice of public charity and correction, like that of public sanitation, be an applied science, and all our universities will have departments of instruction devoted to it, as some few are already beginning to have.

VII.

The Feeble-minded.

THE FEEBLE-MINDED.

BY GEORGE H. KNIGHT, M.D., LAKEVILLE, CONN.

For the past ten years the status of the work accomplished, the methods used, the reforms advocated for the care and training of the feeble-minded, have been as familiar to the members of this Conference as have those of any other charity or reform which have been brought before us for help, encouragement, suggestion, or advancement.

You are so familiar with our statistics that you are not startled by the fact that, while the Census of 1880 showed that there were 76,000 feeble-minded persons in the United States, the Census of 1890 shows nearly 96,000,— an average increase of 2,000 a year for ten years, of which in actual numbers only about 6,500 are cared for in private or public institutions. This makes an average which seems discouragingly small until we recall the fact that the belief has been general until within a few years that persons of feeble mind were both useless and harmless.

We have no record whatever of any sustained effort in behalf of the idiot, or imbecile, until the year 1800, when a small beginning was made in France. And, now that the Conference is here upon Connecticut soil, it may not be amiss to state, with pride in the fact, that the first steps taken in America in behalf of the imbecile were taken right here in our sister city of Hartford, when as early as 1818 a few children of feeble mind were cared for, taught, and, it is needless to state, improved in the Asylum for the Deaf and Dumb.

Massachusetts led in establishing the first institution devoted especially to the feeble-minded; and, while it is not literally true, as we wish it were, that others have followed from Maine to California,

yet it is true that, from Massachusetts to the ambitious young State of Washington, we have, here and there, successful schools and homes for this class of defectives.

Wisconsin has been the last to wheel into line, but may yet lead all the others if she cares for her dependants of feeble mind with the same zeal and judgment which she has already shown in her care of the insane.

Recognizing the fact that the Conference audience is made up of practical, earnest, thinking men and women from every part of our country, we have each year urged upon you the need, the pressing need, of having provision made for the feeble-minded in every State in the Union. It is not enough that seventeen States have shown justice, as well as mercy, toward this class. Every State owes a like provision to her citizens. There is no more pitiable, helpless object on the face of the earth than a boy or girl of feeble mind who is uncared for. There is no one of this class who can ever plead his own cause or that of his fellows, no matter how fortunate he may have been in his environment. He must always remain defective and dependent, at the mercy of his more fortunate brother, uplifted or debased by him.

Even our newly settled States are not free from this burden of imbecility. The sturdy emigrant, who comes to this land of promise full of hope, brings his misfortunes with him as surely as his courage and endurance. The hardships and privations incident to the development of a new country, the hard life of the women in the fields, perhaps the inheritance of generations of poverty and oppression,— all these make themselves felt in the number of defective children found among our foreign population.

We do not stand before you as theorists. Practical proof of all that we have hoped and claimed could be done for the feeble-minded is to be had by any one who will take the trouble to visit our institutions. We have shown that humanity and economy, public safety and individual interest, are each most truly conserved when we have given this class our best care and have surrounded them with every safeguard. We have been the pioneers in that new education which aims at developing mind and body at the same time. Nothing has been too small, too insignificant, to be of value, if it could awaken even a passing interest in these children under our charge. All our training, school, and trade and service of every kind have had to have for their object the development of each individual.

It does not alter the obligation that our results are meagre from an intellectual standpoint. They are meagre, looked at from any point except that of comparison with the same class untrained. But is it not to the honor of our civilization to-day that, in spite of the fact that the most persevering efforts of intelligent men and women result only in this meagreness, there are yet those who are willing to spend a lifetime in making the best of this human wreckage?

Those of us who come closest to this work, those of us who are its warmest advocates, have no illusions. We know the hopelessness of trying to imitate intelligence or common sense, just as we know that, when a child of feeble mind needs hospital care, usually the most welcome message we can send to his parents or guardian is that his days are numbered. Yet that does not prevent our bringing to bear upon the case all the skill available to prolong the life of even one of the lowest types in our custodian grade.

We do not strive to educate the feeble-minded with any hope of "turning them out Harvard graduates," as we were once charged with thinking to do in the early days of the work in Minnesota. The sum total of what is called "book knowledge" which can be gained by a person of feeble mind is comparatively insignificant. That is simply a means to an end. The end is to secure the best results in caring for a class who are found in every condition in life,—a burden upon the home, a tax upon the community, a responsibility which must be met by the State, whether or not. That we have been able to create opportunities for usefulness for them inside institution walls is one of the happiest results of our methods of training.

The details of institution care and training for the feeble-minded are, in a way, minor considerations. What we claim and stand ready to prove is that the establishment of an institution is a tremendous force as a preventive measure, in addition to the value of the institution as a place of refuge. No one needs to be convinced of the impracticability of trying to place out children of this grade. When the natural ties of blood cannot bear the strain of constant association with the peculiarities of a person of feeble mind, it is hopeless to try to find voluntary affection or forbearance for them among strangers, except under very exceptional circumstances. Experience has taught that we must have institutions for the paupers of feeble mind; and it is also true that outside of institutions wealth,

influence, and position are useless in securing the highest benefits for an imbecile child of even the most fortunate parentage. What it needs and must have for any development is what it can get in an institution, and in no other way; namely, companionship, instruction, and amusement. Otherwise isolation is inevitable.

We have also proved that we must have *large* institutions if we would get the best results; for, while the training of the imbecile must always depend mainly upon individual effort, yet the types are so diverse that it is only from considerable numbers that classes of a general degree of development are secured.

We have proved, too, that in large institutions we can give employment to those adult imbeciles who are beyond what we call the "school age," but are, unfortunately, not beyond the reproductive age, and who must therefore remain under guardianship, or else prove a menace to the public welfare. This is one of the reasons why we so strongly advocate the colony plan for all grades of the feeble-minded as the cheapest as well as the wisest method, utilizing, as it does, the labor of a class whose work would command absolutely nothing if brought into competition with even the most unskilled labor of persons of normal mind. No one will gainsay the fact that an imbecile who can pay for his board and his clothes by his own work justifies the expense of bringing within his reach what we will call a "home market." He can no longer be considered a pauper, a State charge, consuming more than he produces. This is especially true of the work of a large per cent. of the epileptic, who are, by reason of their infirmity, debarred from many of the occupations for which their mental qualifications would fit them.

As superintendents of institutions, we are constantly striving not only to convince an indifferent public of the necessity of providing a suitable home for this large class of dependants who must be protected, but we are also working out new methods in management, in economy and education.

As physicians, we are following up each clew, hint, or history of the cases under our charge, with the hope of some time being able to give to the world that ounce of prevention which shall lessen the appalling number of the feeble-minded. But, so far, our efforts have been mainly in behalf of those who have been safely housed between the walls of institution homes, the 6,500 fortunate ones who are cared for by private or State charity. But

there is a duty which, as citizens and tax-payers and law-makers, we have neglected; and that is our failure to secure by suitable legislation such a series of laws as shall prevent the tremendous increase in our imbecile population, which to a large extent is due to the laxness of supervision given to the imbecile women who drift from time to time into our almshouses.

We cannot, at present, secure the legislation which shall prevent the marriage of epileptics, that most prolific source of imbecility. I doubt if it can ever be brought about, for the victims of this disease are so variously affected. There is such a wide gulf between such epileptics as Cæsar and Napoleon, for instance, and the low grade custodial case, which is an embodiment of the disease at its worst, that the thousands who are between these extremes, who are its occasional victims, and who are not prevented from filling positions of importance, often for a lifetime, would rise like a mighty army to protest against any legislation which would aim at bettering the race at their expense. The world is not yet ready for this kind of radical reform. The same thing is true of alcoholism as a factor in the causation of imbecility. It will be a long day before any reformation can be hoped for in either of these most productive sources of idiocy and imbecility.

Neither have we been able to convince the general public nor even the charitable public of that which is an article of firm belief with us, growing out of our experience as superintendents; namely, that a large proportion of the criminal class is recruited from a type which, when found in our institutions, we designate as moral imbeciles. But we confidently believe that the time will come when the recognition of these as a distinct and dangerous type among the defective classes will result in such timely and thorough preventive measures as shall give them custodial care for life, make them wards of the State, and trained to usefulness, thus arresting the tendency to crime instead of attempting to reform the full-fledged criminal. These are the preventive measures of the future toward which we must work; but, when we do find a foul spot which we can rub out at once if we will bend all our energies to the task, in the name of humanity let us attack it without delay.

The first annual report of the New York State Asylum for Feeble-minded Women stated that about twenty per cent. of the whole number of inmates received had borne illegitimate children. A faithful

record of the number of children borne by the imbecile women among the 90,000 who are without the constant supervision of an institution home would horrify the respectable community supporting them.

Here is an opportunity for an immediate work of prevention upon which we should concentrate all our efforts. I should like to place this question before the Conference for discussion: How shall we educate public opinion to the point where overseers of the poor and town officials shall feel the same humiliation and sense of disgrace at the birth of an illegitimate child among their charges which any superintendent of an institution would feel under like circumstances?

THE TRAINING OF AN IDIOTIC HAND.

BY SAMUEL J. FORT, M.D., ELLICOTT CITY, MD.

There is no part of the human anatomy that challenges more admiration than does the hand. There is no more remarkable organ, not vital. Its sensitiveness, suppleness, delicacy of movement, beauty of form, its marvellous range of adaptability, make it one of the most wonderful parts to be found among animal organisms ("the consummation of all perfection," as Sir Charles Bell describes it),— the anatomy at once simple and complex, the mechanical arrangement of the wrist, joint and fingers, the completeness of its muscular complement.

The normal hand, while capable of far more than has yet ever been developed, represents the sum total of its owner's accomplishments; and upon it we depend in great part for our daily bread. The hand of the idiot, of whatever his grade, marks the limit of his deficiency. There may be, and probably are, the same general anatomical components going to make this hand as make the normal hand; but rarely do we find it without some anomalous conditions, showing only too clearly the intimate relationships between physiological and organic disorder. We shall find short, stumpy fingers with thickened joints, or long, slender, and clawlike fingers; instead of the flexible, dextrous, smooth, and frictionless movements of the

trained hand, stiffness, tenseness, and even rigidity, or in its place a soft, flabby, cartilaginous mass of apparent pulp, with here and there the faint suspicion of bones.

Combined with these conditions, of course,— for we are speaking of a class of deficients,— will be found the inability to move the hand freely from one object to another or even directly toward an object when the will speaks to it through the sluggish motor system of nerves. This hand must be trained, first, to prehend, to grasp, and, having the object in possession, to retain it and relinquish it at command. This is evidently the first use of the normal hand, and we must begin at the very bottom with our abnormal hand. It must be taught, first, the simple movements that combined will prove useful; and in this teaching it must be borne in mind to start always from the lowest to the highest, to go from the purely automatic movements, such as the grasp of the new-born babe upon the extended finger, up to the more intellectual movements which start from and depend upon the ability to grasp. It must be gradually taught to become aggressive, in that it is to be used to assist, to protect, to bring into active association with all external objects, the ego back of it,—to carry things to the nose to smell, to the mouth to taste, to utilize the wonderful sense of touch so especially developed in the skin of the hand, to become useful to itself and others, and at last to be able to work, to accomplish some definite object, the reward being the support of the individual.

Now, how is this to be done? It would furnish material for a book to cover thoroughly this part of my subject; and I may only glance briefly over the field of work as pursued in our institutions for the feeble-minded, and perhaps be able to mention some original work as carried out in my own home school.

The elder Seguin suggests the use of a ladder to bring out prehension, but I have found with many cases it is better to use a table or window ledge. In this lesson the child is placed first by the table, with its hands upon the edge, the feet firmly upon the floor, the back being supported by the two hands of the trainer placed beneath the arms of the child (a point in lifting or supporting any child that should be insisted upon by all mothers). The table is always high enough to demand some exertion of the arms to maintain the erect position and just see over the edge. Then, if in no other way, the attention of the child can be drawn to flowers or cake

or even plain bread and butter placed upon the table; and, the attention gained, the grasp tightens, and the whole body is sustained by the arms and hands in the effort to see. The window ledge comes into service in the same manner, and the interest is excited by calling attention to the panorama out-of-doors. The ladder and compulsory climbing come in better after the child has made the first effort, and has gained confidence.

Having brought the inert child up to the standard of the more active by this sort of training, the occupations of the physiological school are resorted to,— the nail board, a board with holes in it in which $1\frac{3}{4}$ rivets can be placed; the form board, a board from which geometrical figures have been cut and the same shaped blocks are to be fitted into the spaces; beads of various colors to be strung upon a string, the colors to alternate or run regularly; papers and straws to be strung in patterns; and pins to be stuck into cushions, — all exceedingly simple, perhaps, but none the less difficult to our pupils.

In a school where there are many of these children the newcomers are received in this training class first to determine their proper place in the upper schools; and some may remain here indefinitely. Others remain but a short time before being promoted into classes where a still higher order of exercises prevails, where the eye and the ear are to be brought into more prominence than heretofore and share in the more specific training of the hand. This higher class, in my opinion, should be the kindergarten, and one not only in name, but in reality; that is to say, the teacher should be a woman who is not only adapted to the work of training feeble-minded children, but a graduate, and thoroughly trained in the theory and practice of this grand system of child-training. It is, I am sorry to say, one of the most shameful impositions of the day in our educational circles that so many immature, poorly trained alleged kindergartners are going about seeking a position, and many actually at work who have not even prepared themselves by a day's preliminary training.

The system of Froebel, the kindergarten, has been a boon to the idiot as well as to the normal child. The three avenues into the mind as laid down by Dr. Seguin — the hand, the eye and the ear — are all considered, beginning with the colored ball in the first gift. A regular sequence is followed, leading up to form and color.

There are also methods of training the stiff and reluctant fingers to follow directions that help further impress the sense of form already gained.

Take the first gift in its entirety. It consists of six soft rubber balls, covered with worsted of different colors, three of the fundamental colors and three of the mixed colors. With these are taught color, material, shape, and other qualities of the ball, such as rubber, round, soft, light, etc. With brighter children there are more extended exercises, as, for instance, the six colors are made to assist the child in remembering the six days of the week, to know the right hand from the left, by receiving and giving in accordance with rules of politeness. Comparisons with other things similar to the ball in all its qualities may follow, as the receptivity of the child shows capacity. Last, but by no means least, in the games, the ball is the objective point around which every other idea clusters. These games prove excellent gymnastic exercises, by the way, and aid very materially in establishing free movements of the various groups of muscles. The other nineteen gifts are of exceeding interest to every trainer of children; but time forbids a further consideration.

It may be well to say something of the more purely physical training of the hand. General physical culture must never be neglected in the training of any child, and should be given especial attention by those who have to do with these afflicted ones. Their natural inertia must be skilfully trained into a natural activity and love of action, and many bodily ailments overcome by exercise adapted to their needs. The specific gymnastics as applied to the hand need be but simple to be very effective. A soft rubber ball (hollow) with a vent affords an excellent hand exerciser. It is to be squeezed and allowed to fill up with air, and again emptied, so many times per exercise. The hand and wrist machine of the well-known Spaulding wall machines, also the rowing machine, are excellent hand exercisers, though of an advanced type, and should be used only upon the prescription of a competent medical man and under the supervision of a trained teacher.

All these lead gradually to the handicrafts such as may be taught advantageously in the schools. Wood-carving, basket-making, engraving, cabinet-making, type-writing, any or all of the trades where the hand is *facile princeps*, may be taught and afterward utilized, the constant thought of all training having the ultimate support of the

individual before it as the great object, not of necessity in the great world, but in some smaller microcosm, without the temptations and cares of that in which we live; for I am of the opinion that the future of these helpless ones asks at least for guardianship, if not positive and absolute control.

When is the best time to begin this training? Others older in the work than myself have urged that the seventh year is the proper period. With the public institution I am not sure that this age is not about right; but where a few can be gathered together, as may be and is done in the modern private institution, the fifth year is none too young, and, personally, I should not hesitate to take children even younger. Certainly, no delay should be permitted after the seventh year in securing the very best training to be found; and too much should not be expected at once. Eight years is not considered too long to give the normal child to learn at most but a little, and fully that should be given the weaker one.

That every feeble-minded child has a right to such training as it can receive is, I think, incontrovertible, even if any one wanted to argue against the proposition; and this brings us to the brief consideration of where this education and training can be had. Experience speaks in no uncertain tone in this respect. The thirty years of earnest, thoughtful work in our own institutions and those abroad prove that the care and training of the feeble-minded have become a science, and long since ceased to be an experiment. Intelligent home care of idiots is something possible, perhaps, but highly improbable; and due regard for the rights of other members of the family should not permit the consideration of such a home asylum, even if the idiot itself had no rights. The State must assume the care of the children from the homes of the poor, and the private school, keeping abreast of the times, provides facilities for those in better circumstances. From these institutions working hand in hand must come the solution of the problem, What shall be the future of the educated idiot?

THE PROTECTION AND TRAINING OF FEEBLE-MINDED WOMEN.

BY C. W. WINSPEAR,

SUPERINTENDENT NEW YORK CUSTODIAL ASYLUM.

The Custodial Asylum at Newark, N.Y., is an outgrowth of the Syracuse State Institution for Feeble-minded Children, and I think there is no exact counterpart of it in this or any other country. Its objects and purposes are exclusively for the enforced custody, care, and protection, during the *child-bearing age*, of feeble-minded women of such physical development as to be capable of becoming mothers; to prevent such women from becoming propagators of their own unfortunate kind; to afford them protection; and to give them such education and training as they are capable of receiving.

It is not a school in an educational sense, though a school department is maintained, but is conducted as a well-regulated home, with special regard to training in all household duties and industries, moral and religious training, the cultivation of habits of cleanliness, propriety, physical culture, music, vocalization, and self-reliance.

Its location, considered by many accidental, is a particularly fortunate one, being on a considerable eminence overlooking the most beautiful landscape in Central New York. Distant terraces of hills, and the valley east and west, threaded by the iron rails, the canal and the carriage drives, afford a charming landscape in every direction from the windows and verandas, all of which adds much to the pleasure and comfort of the unfortunate inmates.

It might perhaps be said that those actively engaged in the care and training of the feeble-minded in this country are generally agreed upon the expediency of providing for adult cases of feeble-minded females in connection with the training schools for this class, and regard it as an error that the custodial institution should have a separate and independent existence.

I cannot claim the distinction of having had acquaintance with the lamented Dr. H. B. Wilbur; but a careful study of the life-work and purposes of this noble man, coupled with the every-day evidences of the grand results of the growth of the seed planted by

him seventeen years ago, which now furnishes a pure, affectionate, and happy home and nurture for three hundred and fifty unfortunate women not endowed with sufficient mental power to protect or restrain themselves, leads me to the belief that in his wise judgment he foresaw the advisability and advantages of providing for adult feeble-minded females in an independent institution, separated so widely from all others that the evil influences of association with or knowledge of the opposite sex should be entirely unknown. This view of this very important question was heartily indorsed by the State Board of Charities of our State.

Prior to this time the investigation of the State Board showed that in all poorhouses and almshouses throughout the State, and in families without adequate means for their proper care, were congregated large numbers of feeble-minded women, not endowed with sufficient mental power to resist rapacity and vice, who, when thrown into misassociation, were quite certain to become mothers and perpetuate unfortunate beings like themselves. It was, therefore, clearly the duty of the State to see that they were protected against the approaches of those who would take advantage of their weakness. More especially the praise of this truly humane and Christian project is due to a lady whose name ranks with those of the highest Christian workers of this or any other country.

In a paper read before the Sixth National Conference of Charities and Correction by Mrs. Charles R. Lowell, of New York, she set forth with convincing clearness the evil features of our penal and pauper institutions which make them breeding-places for paupers and criminals. The confinement of the sexes of all ages in the same buildings, where they are more or less thrown together, was shown to result in demoralization and vices which cannot be put into words. By a startling array of facts she demonstrated the pernicious consequences of girls being "tossed from poorhouse to jail and from jail to poorhouse, until the last trace of womanhood in them is destroyed." She described the speedy descent "from the first sin to the final degradation, fostered at every stage by the very means used to stay the deterioration of character."

Custodial care for feeble-minded women of full physical development, in distinctly separate institutions, which was at first considered by many a doubtful experiment, has proved a grand success, and should be followed by every other State in this country.

England has been attracted by its influence, and representatives from that country have visited this place to see for themselves. Others have inquired by correspondence what could be done for this class of poor humanity, and now similar institutions mark her Christian philanthropy. The constantly improving condition of these wards confirms the wisdom, the justice, as well as the true Christian kindness, that prompted the effort on their behalf. Dr. Ireland, an eminent British philanthropist, in a report of his views on the "Newark Custodial," says: "There is no doubt that here we have a difficult question solved in a simple manner. Such an asylum must be very useful, and can only be supported at the expense of the State. Viewed from a money point alone, the cost of neglecting them [adult feeble-minded women] is likely to be greater than the cost of taking proper care of them."

The fact which we desire to impress most forcibly upon the minds of this Conference is that the feeble-minded of sound physical development are not brought to public attention so readily as are the lower grade and those physically deformed. Especially may this be said of the females, who, from selfish or mistaken motives on the part of parents or relatives, are kept hidden from the public until some act or condition forces society to interfere. After they have passed the school age, the training school is not considered available; and it is also quite possible that the immediate treatment required may be of entirely different character. Thus, in the absence of distinct custodial institutions for this particular class, a large portion of the unfortunate beings never receive the care which it is intended by humane society that they should have. They are taken to a hospital, poorhouse, or jail, tossed from one to the other, and in the interim upon the public at large; their life one of abuses and misery; a monster evil to society, in that they are sowing the seed to perpetuate the misfortune of their own existence.

We claim for this system distinct and essential points of merit, which cannot be so perfectly attained under any other conditions.

The isolation from contact or close knowledge of the opposite sex is wholesome in the fact that there are no conditions to excite sexual instincts, which in the defective are usually abnormal. The moral status of an individual is governed largely by his mental.

Being unembarrassed by a large school force and small children,

we are enabled to devote the entire energies of the best talent of our official force to moral, religious, and industrial training, thereby fitting our charges to return into the world, and become, under proper guidance, faithful domestics as soon as moral dangers shall have passed. This is as far as the education of the imbeciles can be put into practical use.

It might also be said in favor of this system that our doors are always open to the weak-minded woman requiring custodial protection. There is no doubt as to the age limit and class received, which might confuse the committing officer, and cause him to hesitate in making application for admission for the adult where the institution is generally known as a training school for children.

A moment's thought, and the fact is plain that unprotected feeble-minded women of full physical development are in constant danger themselves, and are always a menace to society,— a twofold reason why custodial care for this class should be the paramount idea in the State's provision for the feeble-minded. Thus their proper care and protection is a twice-blessed charity, in that it blesses the recipient of the State's bounties and blesses society by the removing of a great evil therefrom.

Our institution is now in its seventeenth year of existence, having been opened with two inmates Sept. 3, 1878, as an experimental branch of the New York Asylum for Idiots. A careful perusal of the records of those seventeen years discloses the gratifying fact that each one of them has been in the line of progressive, intelligent philanthropy.

Each year the number committed to our care has been a considerable increase over that of the preceding; and we have now reached a population at which our extended accommodations are exhausted, with numerous applicants knocking at our doors for admission. Provisions to meet this demand are already near completion. This numerical statement is a most gratifying proof of the good work of the institution, and positive evidence of the full confidence of all public-minded, charitable citizens.

VIII.

The Insane.

THE COLORED INSANE.

BY J. W. BABCOCK, M.D., COLUMBIA, S.C.,

PHYSICIAN AND SUPERINTENDENT, SOUTH CAROLINA LUNATIC ASYLUM.

To you, Mr. President, and to other members of this Conference, this has seemed a fitting time to consider the question of insanity in the negro. At your request this paper has been prepared; but, rather than present for your consideration my own opinions only upon this important subject, I have undertaken to compile as well the observations of others, and also to present an historical sketch of the policy pursued by the several States in dealing with the colored insane.

The term "colored insane" is here applied to all persons of African descent, to full-blooded negroes as well as to half-breeds. The statement made by Witmer in writing upon this subject that "colored" is used by him because "it is probable that there are no full-blooded African negroes in the United States at this time" (1890) will be denied by any one familiar with the colored people of the Southern States. On the islands of the Carolina coast the negroes are an unmixed race. Of 192 negro men under my care on April 24 last, 78, or 40 per cent., were pronounced "full-blooded" Africans by intelligent men of their own race.

I. Insanity in the Negro.

According to the testimony of travellers and natives, mental disease is almost unknown among the savage tribes of Africa. Among the slaves of the Southern States also insanity appears to have been conspicuously rare in the experience of individual observers. Since

emancipation, however, brain diseases have become more common in the negro as compared with the whites, having increased, according to the census, from one-fifth as common in 1850 and 1860 to one-third as common in 1870 and to one-half as common in 1880 and 1890.

To sociologists this fact is scarcely of less interest than it is to physicians.

According to the figures of the Census Office the colored insane of the United States were in: —

1850	. . .	638,	giving a ratio of	175	per million	inhabitants.		
1860	. . .	766,	"	"	169	"	"	"
1870	. . .	1,822,	"	"	367	"	"	"
1880	. . .	6,157,	"	"	912	"	"	"
1890	. . .	6,766,	"	"	886	"	"	"

By the last two enumerations the proportion of colored insane in different parts of the country was as follows: —

	1880.	1890.
Northern States	1 in 545;	1 in 542
District and Territories	1 in 680;	1 in 476
Southern States	1 in 1,235;	1 in 1,364

In Virginia it has been claimed the increase of insanity in the colored race has been for twenty-five years at the rate of 100 or more per cent. every ten years.

The apparently rapid increase of insanity in the negro after his emancipation began to be recognized by Southern asylum superintendents as early as 1867.

In 1848 Doctor John M. Galt, of the Williamsburg (Va.) Asylum, in writing upon the colored insane, observed that "the proportionate number of slaves who become deranged is less than that of free colored persons and less than that of the whites. From many of the causes affecting the other classes of our inhabitants they are somewhat exempt. For example, they are removed from much of the mental excitement to which the free population of the Union is necessarily exposed in the daily routine of life, not to mention the liability of the latter to the influence of the agitating novelties in religion, the intensity of political discussion, and other elements of the excessive mental action which is the result of our republican

form of government. Again, they have not the anxious cares and anxieties relative to property, which tend to depress some of our free citizens. The future, which to some of our white population may seem dark and gloomy, to them presents no cloud upon its horizon. Moreover, not only are they less exposed to causative influences of a moral character, but the mode of life which they lead tends to strengthen the constitution and enable it to resist physical agents calculated to induce insanity."

In his inquiry into the causes of the increase of insanity among negroes since emancipation, Doctor Powell, of the Georgia Asylum, concludes that "their remarkable mental and physical health, and their immunity from certain diseases, while in slavery, was entirely due to the healthful restraints that surrounded them from childhood through life. They were taught from infancy obedience and self-control, and forced to obey all the laws of health, so that their environments all tended to health. The cause of insanity and other diseases with them now, from which they were exempt in slavery, is the removal of all healthy restraints that formerly surrounded them."

It is doubtful whether in the history of the world any race of men has lived in whom such a degree of inhibitory power has been developed as existed in the Southern slaves.

"The new and strange relation into which our negro population has been driven by the acquisition of freedom," says Doctor Atwood, of St. Louis, "the sudden demand upon sluggish and uncultivated brains for vigorous and effective action, while competing with the dominant and cultivated Caucasian in the struggle for existence; the melancholy that comes like a blight with the sense of failure, and the hopelessness of contention; the aspirations for social and political success and recognition, so frequently doomed to disappointment,— have borne legitimate fruit in the generating of diseased brains and disordered minds, to a degree vastly disproportionate to the numerical relation of the races."

While placing, in the main, little reliance upon the alleged causes of insanity as given in the statistical tables of asylums, we may, however, arrive at some more tangible results by collating the results obtained by independent investigators. Thus, from the Petersburg (Va.) Hospital, we have the statistics as to *causation* of 3,052 cases of colored insane in twenty-five years, and from South

Carolina 1,142 in thirteen years. The largest percentages of assigned causes are as follows: —

	Virginia.	*South Carolina.*
	Per cent.	Per cent.
Alcoholic dissipation	6.224	3.94
Heredity	2.62	14.8
Religious excitement	5.70	8.49
Blows on the head	2.29	2.18
Syphilis	.983	.7

Is this increase of insanity in the negro real or apparent?

For the first nine years after the opening, in 1865, of the Tennessee Hospital for Insane Negroes, an increase of insanity among them was observed. For the next eight years there was a diminution. It was conjectured that during the first decade mental disease was produced by the excitement and general agitation following new conditions of life.

It must also be remembered that all colored lunatics who had been cared for by their owners became, after emancipation, objects for county and State care. Hence we find in 1867 the demand for admission of colored patients especially attracting the attention of asylum superintendents.

In the South Carolina Asylum the admissions of negro patients for the decade ending Nov. 1, 1894, numbered 1,531, the admissions for the first and last years being 151 and 149 respectively, while the annual average was 153. Of these the total first attacks were 1,024, of which 91 were for 1884, and 106 for 1894, the average being 102. Since all the insane for whom application is made are received into the South Carolina Asylum, these figures do not indicate for the last decade an increase of mental disease as compared with the increase of population.* This conclusion is borne out by the returns of the last census, not only for South Carolina, but also for the United States, since the ratio of insane per million of colored people for the whole country declined from 912 to 886, and remained stationary or declined in the South Atlantic and South Central Divisions, but increased slightly in the other sections.

In considering this subject, we must also keep clearly in mind the fact that increase of population means an absolute, if not a relative, increase in the number of the insane; and, furthermore, we must

*The colored population of South Carolina in 1880 was 604,332, and in 1890 688,934.

make due allowance for the omissions and other errors of the earlier enumerations of this class.

No one to-day places too implicit confidence in statistics. The figures I have cited have only a relative value, and in this light only are they to be considered; but we cannot lose sight of the fact that on the basis of the census, as compared with insanity in whites, mental disease in the negro has arisen from one-fifth as common in 1850 to one-half as common in 1880 and 1890.

For the general public the most important fact in connection with the subject of insanity is the question of the support of this constant accumulation of lunatics. The ratio of insane per million of the total population may have fallen from 1,833 in 1880 to 1,700 in 1890, and of the colored insane in the same decade from 912 to 886. But the total number of insane rose in that period from 85,803 to 99,779, and of the colored insane from 6,156 to 6,766. All theories and other considerations aside, proper provision for this increasing number of degenerates most deeply concerns the tax-payer, the legislator, and even the asylum officer.

Forms of Insanity.— Some years ago it was believed that the negro was exempt from certain forms of mental disease which are well defined in white races. For instance, Roberts, of North Carolina, in 1883, had never seen a case of general paralysis among his colored patients, nor Powell, of Georgia (1886), in a "full-blooded negro." Dipsomania and the opium habit had also not been observed. Further investigation has disclosed the existence of all these types of disease in the negro, although they are still comparatively rare.

Two interesting phases of insanity in colored races are the comparative rarity of melancholia and the prevalence of mania, which is 20 per cent. more common than it is in the whites. Consequently, we should expect to find, and do find, almost an absence of suicidal tendencies among the colored insane. In commenting upon the prevalence of mania which he found among native Africans, Greenlees observes that, "if we consider the theories of those who maintain that, while mania represents a loss of the lower developed strata of the mental organism, melancholia indicates an absence of the higher and latest developed strata, then this prevalence of mania among natives of low developed brain functions goes far to prove this theory."

II. State Provision for Colored Insane.

Prior to 1861 African lunatics were received into few Southern asylums, partly because cases of the milder forms of mental diseases were cared for by their owners, but principally because in most States no provision was made for the admission of negroes as patients. Notable exceptions, however, were made in Virginia, Kentucky, South Carolina, Maryland, and the District of Columbia.

In the New England, Middle, and most of the Western States the number of colored lunatics has always been proportionately so small as not to assume the significance of a separate problem in the care of the insane. In those States insane persons of African descent are admitted to State hospitals and asylums upon the same conditions and are assigned to the same wards as white patients. But in private asylums North and West negroes are either not received at all, or only under very rare and exceptional conditions. This distinction is due entirely to social considerations.

In the South where fourteen-fifteenths of the African race are now massed, and whither the tendency to further concentration appears evident, it is natural that the problem of the management of the colored insane should assume proportions and raise questions of public policy which in the East and West are of small moment and where perhaps they may be even not easy to understand.

The history of the policy of the different States in dealing with the colored insane can best be presented by extracts from the annual reports of asylum superintendents. By this method we can learn how year by year a difficult and intricate problem has been dealt with almost independently by the several States, for it appears that the question has not received much comparative study from men whose positions of responsibility should have evoked special investigation of this subject.

Virginia.— In the report of the Staunton Asylum for 1845 Doctor Stribling says: "Having long been impressed with the importance of suitable provisions being made for insane colored persons in our State, and having waited in vain for some one more competent to present their claims to the attention of the legislature, we ventured in our last annual report to allude to the object, and make a few suggestions designed to favor its accomplishment. Nothing, however,

was done or even attempted. . . . The reflection which we have been enabled to bestow upon the subject convinces us that it would be mutually prejudicial to both whites and blacks, but especially the former, were the two classes blended in one asylum or within the same enclosure. The principal reasons for this opinion are based upon a knowledge of the relation which most of the patients in our State institutions sustained to colored persons previous to their mental affliction, connected with the consideration that the prejudices existing when in health have been aggravated, in all probability, by the morbid state of feeling which insanity mostly engenders."

On the 11th of May, 1846, there were in the Williamsburg Asylum 12 free colored females and 5 males; and in 1849 Doctor Galt, the distinguished superintendent of that asylum, said in his report: "The colored insane in Virginia may be divided into two classes: first, those who are free; and, second, slaves. Patients of the first class have been received into the asylum from the date of its opening. The directors have always construed the thirteenth section of the act of March 6, 1841, and the clauses corresponding with it in similar previous acts of a general nature, to apply to free persons of color, so that they have been all along placed upon the same footing as to the right of admission which was possessed by white persons. During the legislative session of 1845–46 the board petitioned this body to allow them to receive insane slaves as patients. And the legislature, with the wise philanthropy which has ever marked their supervision of the suffering insane, granted this request in the act of Jan. 16, 1846. Since that period very few colored applicants have been refused for the want of room; and those in charge of this asylum have had the privilege of ministering to the wants of all classes of persons laboring under the great calamity of an insane mind, irrespective of color or social position."

The Freedman's Bureau maintained a General Hospital at Howard's Grove, near Richmond, from 1865 till 1869, during which time part of the colored insane was received there for treatment. During this period 25 colored patients were under care at the Williamsburg Asylum. When the Bureau withdrew and the hospital patients were dispersed, General Canby, then military governor of Virginia, re-established the asylum exclusively for the colored insane, Dec. 17, 1869; and the legislature incorporated it as a permanent State institution in June, 1870.

Governor Walker, at the centennial ceremonies of the Eastern Lunatic Asylum at Williamsburg, in 1873, says that "Virginia, in her deep poverty, had established the first asylum for the poor colored man ever organized."

In 1876, with 243 patients under his care, Doctor Barkesdale, the superintendent, urged the enlargement of the asylum, so that all the colored insane in the State, many of whom were then in jails, might be received.

In 1882 $100,000 was appropriated for this purpose by the legislature, and in 1885 373 patients were transferred to the new asylum which had been built near Petersburg.

In 1887, having 436 patients under his care, Doctor Barkesdale reported that 100 insane colored people were unprovided for, the large majority being in jails. The legislature responded to this by appropriating $22,500 for a new building, which was completed in 1888; but in 1889 the capacity of 600 beds of the institution was nearly full, and 64 colored patients were being cared for at Pinel Hospital, a private asylum near Richmond. The legislature again responded by appropriating $20,000 for a new building; but before it was completed in 1891 there were 80 patients at Pinel Hospital, and 15 in jails awaiting admission. Pinel Hospital was closed in 1891, and large accessions were made to the Central Hospital. Again the legislature appropriated $20,000, and the daily average number of patients under treatment in 1892 was 700; and the superintendent says, "From all the information I can get there are at least 125 colored insane people within the State who have been adjudged insane, and the authorities are continually clamoring for their respective unfortunates." In 1894 further provision had been made; and 939 colored insane were under treatment at Petersburg, the daily average being 802.

Kentucky.— On May 1, 1824, the asylum at Lexington was opened. It was the fifth institution for the insane completed in the United States, and the first west of the Alleghanies. Into that asylum the first patient received was a colored woman. To what extent colored persons were subsequently admitted into the Kentucky Asylum I have not been able to learn; but in his report for 1857 Doctor Chipley, the superintendent of the Lexington Asylum, says: "As heretofore, many humane masters have sought to place their servants in this institution for treatment; and it has been

a painful necessity that compelled us to refuse their admission, especially when the case has presented flattering prospects of yielding to suitable treatment. But no provision has been made for their accommodation."

In 1867 Doctor Chipley says, "The new building, for which the legislature provided at its last session, is going up in the most satisfactory manner; and I now feel sure that both it and the building for negro lunatics will be completed in strict accordance with the act appropriating money for that purpose."

In 1868 he continues, "Provision has been made here for negro lunatics, to the extent of 35 of each sex."

Doctor Forbes, of the Central Lunatic Hospital, reports in 1875 that "the legislature last winter appropriated $33,000 for the purpose of erecting and providing buildings, rooms, and accommodations here for colored lunatics, . . . but it was specially provided that 'the colored and white lunatics shall not be kept in the same building.'"

In the following year Doctor Forbes asks: "What more permanent disposition is to be made of the colored insane? The departments allotted to their care both at Lexington and here are full. There are now about 150 of this population provided with accommodations in the State. The increase will have to be considered,—whether it will be better to go on with extensions there or here, or both, or to isolate them from the whites entirely, inasmuch as it is important and necessary to keep them wholly separate."

In 1883 Doctor Gale, the superintendent of the Central Hospital, announces that the buildings now occupied by the colored patients are overcrowded and wholly unfit for occupation, and should be dispensed with as soon as proper provision can be made for the inmates, about 100 in number.

In the report of the Eastern Hospital for 1885 it is stated that "no provisions have been made for the colored insane, which, if not done, will virtually close our doors for their admission in this asylum. Many of the colored insane are now confined in the county jails of the State, and your attention is specially called to this sad condition of affairs. The capacity of the wards occupied by this class has remained the same for the last fifteen or twenty years."

In 1885, at the Anchorage Asylum, 68 colored patients were under

treatment in newly renovated departments; and in the following year the superintendent of that asylum advocated the erection of a separate institution for the 200 patients then under treatment.

In the Eastern Hospital at Lexington in 1887 39 colored men and 40 colored women were under treatment, and in 1894 at the Central Hospital 219 colored patients were being cared for.

South Carolina.— In 1848, twenty years after the opening of the Lunatic Asylum of South Carolina, the General Assembly of that State passed an act admitting negro lunatics, idiots, and epileptics upon the conditions previously established for white patients. In the decade following the passage of that law 30 negro patients were admitted to the asylum, but more than five were never nuder treatment at one time. These patients were kept apart from the whites; and the sexes were separated in small, one-story, brick structures, which Doctor Parker, the superintendent, described as affording inadequate provision for comfort and care.

Subsequent to 1848 colored patients were annually received into the asylum. In 1869 29 were admitted. The suddenly increased numbers were housed in wooden pavilions, which have from time to time been enlarged and extended to meet the demands for additional accommodations.

In commenting upon this arrangement, Doctor Parker says in his report for 1869: "These buildings, although comfortable, are of wood, and in other respects are ill adapted to the purposes to which they are put. My experience leads to the conclusion that the welfare and proper treatment of the insane of both races require that they be kept entirely separate and apart; and with this conviction, even if the present buildings were of greater capacity, I would still recommend that another and distinct house of brick, properly planned and arranged, be erected as soon as practicable for their special accommodation."

In 1878 Doctor Ensor expressed the opinion that "the white and colored patients ought not to be domiciled in the same buildings. The natural antagonism of the races is opposed to the course; and the sooner the State makes provision for their separate maintenance, the better it will be for both races. They both may be provided for in the same institution and under one management, but in different buildings."

In the report for 1889 Doctor Griffin writes that "the negro

men are quartered in wooden buildings, erected out of the savings from the appropriations for maintenance from time to time as became necessary; that the colored women occupied half of the old asylum and two (wooden) pavilions annexed; that these wooden buildings incur great risk from fire, and that the two races were in juxtaposition mutually distasteful."

With rare exceptions, all patients for whose admission application has been made have been received into the asylum; and the law forbids the keeping of any insane persons in jail beyond temporary detention, so that up to the present time South Carolina has admitted to the asylum all her insane. There were 182 colored men and 156 colored women under treatment Oct. 31, 1894.

Within a few months a contract has been made for supplying during the summer one and a half million of brick for erecting a building for colored male patients, so that it may reasonably be expected that this work, already too long delayed, may rapidly be pushed to completion.

Maryland.— There were 10 colored patients under treatment in the Maryland Asylum in 1845. In 1850 there were 12 colored patients. In 1852 6 colored men and 4 women remained under treatment. All of these were probably free persons of color. In the report of the Maryland Hospital for 1877 it is stated that "there is no provision whatever in the State for the separate care and treatment of the colored insane, other than has been made in this hospital."

In 1879 Doctor Richard Gundry announces that "two grand juries of Baltimore have in their reports reflected upon the indiscriminate mixing of white and colored patients in the same wards of the institution." Again, in 1890, Doctor Gundry calls especial attention to this subject: "We have 62 colored patients, 34 males and 28 females, for whom it were better that provision should be made elsewhere,— better for their own sakes and better for the other patients, to some of whom they are a source of irritation. If the State would provide better accommodations for all the colored insane of Maryland at some convenient place, with adequate means of classification, their condition would be greatly improved; and more recoveries might be looked for among them." For a number of years colored lunatics of Baltimore County have been received into the Bay View Asylum. Since 1888 the Lunacy Commission of Maryland has been advo-

cating the erection of an asylum for colored insane; and in 1895 appropriation was made for building a new asylum, but no special provision has yet been made for the colored insane so far as I can learn.

Mississippi.— Doctor W. M. Compton, superintendent, in a "Retrospect" of the Jackson Asylum, says in his annual report for 1877 "it will be remembered that this asylum was not opened until 1855. To show that the managers were not oblivious nor indifferent to the wants of the colored people, then slaves, it is only necessary to quote from the report of the board of trustees to the legislature in 1856. They said, 'There is no provision under existing laws for the reception of slaves nor free persons of color into the asylum. This, had it been presented to the attention of the legislature, would doubtless have been provided for. . . . The trustees believe that there should be a special department for this class. The masters of slaves received as patients ought, unquestionably, to support them while in the institution. And, in case of free persons of color who have property, they should of course support themselves; but, when they are unable to do so, the charge, as in other cases, should fall on the counties in which they reside.'" (Signed by five trustees.)

"After the war was over," continues Doctor Compton, "although the relationship between the races in this State had been changed, the demand for the care and treatment of the colored insane was still more imperative. In 1870 I pressed the matter upon the attention of the legislature; and, when the new wings were opened, proper wards were assigned to the colored people, and they have been occupying them ever since. At first, and before the experiment was tried, it was apprehended that a feeling of caste would operate against the success of an institution in which the afflicted of both races were under the same control. Governor Alcorn had an eye to this when he wrote his message to the legislature in 1870, saying: 'In the case of the insane I have called attention to the necessity of an arrangement of the asylum for the separation of the white lunatic from the lunatic of color. Principles are general, not special, and can never be made to apply in all places and under all circumstances. While anxious for the measures of reform which I have already pointed out in the charities of the State, with the view of giving the colored people not only their rights of the present, but

whatever is possible of requital for the past, I am not the less solicitous to maintain in an operative form all the benefits of those charities to the afflicted among the whites. If a mixture of races be made the condition of participation of our public charities, no matter how you may regard the wisdom of the objection, that condition will act among the whites to a very great extent as a virtual exclusion.'

"That was well said," adds Doctor Compton, "and the 'arrangement' was made to avoid the 'mixture of races.' We have had no trouble from this cause. The two races are not mixed, but they are both under the same control. We have had no race-jealousies nor race-conflicts, no race-clashes of sentiment nor race-gougings of eyes, either amongst the patients or employees. The wards are as separate and distinct as the houses on a street, and neither class ever trespasses upon the precincts of the other. In the field and in the garden the patients of both races work side by side, harmoniously together under the same supervision, without jar and without discord. We have no wounding of sensibilities; and, with certain well-defined lines of separation which neither class has ever been disposed to cross, it may be truly said that we 'dwell together in unity.'"

In 1890 Mississippi built at Jackson an annex especially for the colored insane; and in September, 1893, 302 colored patients were under treatment as compared with 378 whites. I understand that no colored insane are now received at the Meridian Asylum.

The Government Hospital at Washington.— In the first report of the Government Hospital for the Insane in 1856, Doctor Nichols, the superintendent, says: "The erection and occupancy of a lodge for colored insane, possessing most of the provisions of an independent hospital, inaugurate, we believe, the first and only special provision for the suitable care of the African when afflicted with insanity which has yet been made in any part of the world, and is particularly becoming to the government of a country embracing a larger population of blacks than is to be found in any other civilized State."

In 1860 the same excellent superintendent expresses in his annual report "the confident expectation that the lodge for colored females will soon be completed, and result in the very desirable separation in different buildings of colored men and women who now occupy different stories of the same building."

Doctor Godding, the worthy successor of Doctor Nichols, reviews

the subject in his report for 1887, saying: "Two detached buildings for the colored insane, male and female respectively, formed a part of the original plan of the hospital. These at first accommodated 20 of each sex, a provision mostly in single rooms. The extension of these buildings recently provided for, together with those previously made, will increase the capacity of each lodge to 100 beds, for the most part in associate dormitories. The African is gregarious in his habits, and the social character of this arrangement suits him. In some cases, however, the type of insanity renders segregation necessary. A race distinct from the whites, with peculiarities and ways of their own, they are most at home in quarters by themselves, and happier in their associations than scattered through the buildings, as necessity has compelled in the more crowded days."

In 1891 Doctor Godding, in commenting upon special features in the management of the Government Hospital, cites: "Another instance where the segregate plan of provision has given especial satisfaction is seen in the female department at the Lodge, a distinct building for the colored women, where, one-tenth of the most violent having been arranged for elsewhere, the remaining nine-tenths are, with hardly an exception, kept busy at some useful occupation. It is one of the pleasantest quarters to visit in the whole establishment. The faces are happy, work is fashionable, and a person doing nothing is decidedly off color."

Tennessee.— Several negro patients were provided for in the Tennessee Hospital for the Insane prior to 1865, when the legislature appropriated $25,000 for building an asylum for colored insane; and after a special act of May, 1866, all colored patients for whom application was made by the Freedman's Bureau or otherwise were received.

In 1867 Doctor Jones in his report asks for $7,000 to complete the asylum for colored insane, and confidently concludes that "Tennesseeans, having been the first people in the South to provide thus kindly and amply for a portion of their former servants, I imagine will not stop short of making the provision thorough."

In 1885 the trustees report that the colored insane are the recipients of every attention and comfort necessary to their afflicted condition.

In 1893 Doctor Callender says: "The annex to this hospital built for the accommodation of the colored insane has been full, and at

times crowded beyond its capacity. There is urgent need for larger accommodations for the colored insane of the State, whose number is increasing each year."

Ohio.— Doctor Langdon, superintendent of the Longview Asylum, in his annual report for 1860 says in effect: There is no legal provision for colored lunatics in Ohio. Being tax-payers, the colored people should have, when insane, the benefits of asylum treatment. At present colored lunatics are confined in jail with thieves and vagrants. Local authorities are helpless to relieve them. Doctor Langdon, therefore, urges upon the trustees the justice and propriety of erecting a building in connection with the Longview Asylum for the exclusive accommodation of colored lunatics. Five insane persons of color were then confined in the jails of Hamilton County. The directors of Longview say, Nov. 1, 1863, "Changes could be made at small expense of buildings now on the [adjoining poor-] farm, as would enable us to construct an asylum for colored insane, as an appendage to Longview."

In the same report Doctor Langdon continues: "Many of them [the colored population] pay heavy taxes, but their insane are compelled to herd with rogues and thieves and vagabonds in our county jails. This is an outrage upon justice, humanity, and common decency; but so little attention has heretofore been paid to our oft-repeated suggestions upon this subject that we now almost despair of accomplishing anything in the future."

In spite of Doctor Langdon's efforts, no provision for insane negroes was made by law in Ohio till April 5, 1866, after which the directors of the Longview Asylum expended $12,000 for the purchase of a house on land adjoining the asylum and $8,000 in fitting it up. By Sept. 1, 1866, the colored lunatics of the county were under treatment, and ample accommodations provided for all the colored insane for many years. The directors "took pleasure in saying, when all is completed, they will have a pleasant and quiet home for the colored insane in this county. This being the first asylum for the colored insane in the United States, we feel proud of our county and State."

In the same report Doctor Langdon says: "It is a source of great gratification to me that provision for the colored insane has been made. . . . It may be that I have appeared to many to place too great a stress on the necessity of such provision. These cases, however, came frequently under my observation; and I could not help

feeling that justice and humanity called for some better treatment of this class of unfortunates than incarceration in the common jail. . . . Immediately after the passage of the law providing for the colored insane, applications were made for their reception into the building with the whites. This we could not do, owing to the strong prejudice which exists in the minds of most whites, and in none more strongly than the inmates of the asylum. . . . It was, therefore, deemed necessary, in order to carry out the intention of the law, to purchase another building; and one within a reasonable distance, formerly occupied as a water-cure establishment, was accordingly, by permission of the board, purchased by me, and fitted up for the reception of the colored insane. . . . All of this class belonging to the county have been freely received and kindly and carefully treated."

Doctor Langdon reports in 1868 that "the colored department has done very well during the past year, the results demonstrating plainly the wisdom and humanity of establishing it."

Doctor Webb, who held Doctor Langdon's place in 1872, in continuing the history of this interesting experiment, says: "There are at the colored asylum 29 patients, only 6 belong to Hamilton County, the remaining 23 to the State. At the time this colored asylum was founded it was, no doubt, the best disposition that could be made of the colored insane; but this necessity does not exist at this time, and its longer continuance is a drain on the funds of Longview. I respectfully suggest to your body that immediate steps be taken to do away with it as a colored asylum. There can be no objection to receiving the colored insane into the State institutions of their respective districts. Hamilton County can care for hers. In all the institutions I have visited there is no difference made on account of color. I made special inquiry on this subject, and failed to find where any difficulty had occurred on account of the mingling of the races. Surely, if our city hospitals can admit both races, our insane asylums can do the same." A new board of directors having come into office in 1875, they give it as their opinion that "the house occupied as a colored asylum (never suitable for this purpose) has, notwithstanding constant repairing, become so dilapidated as to be really unfit for occupation as an insane asylum. In view of these facts the board of directors are taking the necessary steps to have suitable buildings erected, so that the increasing number of patients can be properly cared for." In the report for

1877 the superintendent, Doctor Bunker, says, "The colored, or lower house, is in a dilapidated condition, and, if not disposed of or abandoned soon, will require plastering and flooring throughout to make it at all habitable." Subsequently, at Longview, the colored patients were assigned to the same wards with the whites, and that system has continued.

Georgia.— Accommodations were first provided for the colored insane of Georgia, in the Milledgeville Asylum, in 1867. They have always occupied departments separate from the whites.

In 1870 Doctor Green, the asylum superintendent, says that "a separate institution for the colored patients is manifestly desired by the colored citizens generally. . . . They are almost or wholly unable to provide at home for one of their relations when insane, or to seek an asylum for them elsewhere. And the buildings provided for them here at present will, in all probability, not furnish the necessary accommodations for one-half of the colored lunatics, idiots, and epileptics now in the State, all of which classes are under the law entitled to claim admission."

New buildings have been recently erected at Milledgeville, increasing the accommodations for colored patients; and these buildings are almost ready for occupation. In Georgia there were in 1894 539 colored insane persons under treatment.

Alabama.— Of the 77 patients received in 1867 into the Alabama Insane Hospital, which had been opened in 1860, 10 were negroes. Doctor Bryce, the superintendent, in commenting upon this fact, says: "Under the present organization this class [the negroes], as poll-tax payers, contribute as much as any other toward the support of the institution, and are therefore entitled to its benefits. I observe that the proper provision for this class of the insane is everywhere receiving a due consideration. So far as I am informed, a classification distinct from the whites has been made. This is unquestionably proper, and indeed necessary here, if good results are expected; and accordingly a portion of the hospital has been assigned to them, and will be held exclusively for their use."

The same authority in 1872 states that the wards for colored insane are now crowded beyond their healthful capacity, and he recommends the erection of a separate building for their accommodation.

In 1880 Doctor Bryce reports that the lodge for colored women

has been completed, and is even superior to the lodge for colored men. In 1884 these lodges are described as well-designed, substantial buildings, which accommodate each between forty and fifty patients.

"For several years past these detached wards for colored people have been crowded, and applicants have been received only as vacancies occur. Numbers of colored insane are now confined in the county jails, awaiting admission to the hospital, and must remain there until further provision is made for their accommodation. . . . Until the State does make such provision, numbers of this class must continue to eke out a miserable existence in the county jails or be allowed to roam about the country, at the peril of the community and great damage to themselves."

In 1888, the legislature having appropriated $20,000 for the erection of another large building for the exclusive use of this class, the building was soon completed; and many who had been confined in county jails and poorhouses were received.

In 1890 Doctor Bryce, and in 1892 Doctor Bondurant, represent their wards as overcrowded, and ask for relief; but this applied to white as well as colored patients.

In 1894 Doctor Searcey reports the inauguration of an ideal arrangement for caring for his colored patients. Cottages had been begun two and a half miles from the hospital, in which convalescing and chronic negro patients could follow the lighter occupations of farm life. Recent or acute cases are kept in suitable buildings at the hospital. This system, as it is now developing at Tuscaloosa, offers, it seems to me, after personal inspection, the best solution of caring for the colored insane at the South, and is worthy of study and adoption by other States.

Texas.— In 1866 Doctor Graham, the superintendent of the Austin Asylum, recommended that provision be made for the colored insane; and Governor Throckmorton urged the legislature to make the necessary appropriations, which was done. After 1867 colored patients were regularly admitted, though references to the subject in reports are few. In 1880 36 colored patients remained under treatment. In 1884 there were 54.

In 1886 Superintendent Denton says: "I have heretofore, in two of my annual reports, called attention to the unavoidable mixing of the white and black population in the wards of this asylum; and I

again call attention to a practice which, to say the least, is distasteful to many of the friends of the inmates, as well as to some of the patients themselves." In 1888 the board of managers appealed to the legislature for better accommodations for colored female patients, who were kept in the basement of the building, without any of the comforts or conveniences of other parts of the building. The colored male patients were treated in all respects like the white male patients.

Colored patients have been received at the Terrell Asylum; but no particulars about their number, care, and accommodation could be obtained from accessible reports.

West Virginia.—In 1867, in the Fourth Annual Report of the West Virginia Hospital for the Insane, Doctor Hills, the superintendent, says: "Several applications have been received for the admission of colored insane persons of both sexes. These have been necessarily refused admission, as we have no special arrangements for that class. Their admission into the wards with whites is very properly refused in all the hospitals of the country."

In 1876 Doctor Camden reports that the colored hospital is almost completed, and that soon the colored insane will be placed in a first-class hospital, equal in every respect to that occupied by the white insane.

In 1887 the board of directors state that the colored hospital is full, and patients of this class are refused for want of room.

In September, 1893, Doctor Crumbacker, the superintendent, reported that "nothing has been done toward the erection of a building for colored patients. The department now assigned them is overcrowded, and is unadapted to the requirements of the insane. There are now on file applications for the admission of ten cases at present confined in jails."

In October, 1894, the directors of the West Virginia Hospital for the Insane inform Governor MacCorkle in their report of the inadequacy of the appropriation for colored insane for either a new hospital or an annex to the existing one, and declare that it would be a waste of money to begin with so small a sum. They ask for $15,000 for a building to relieve overcrowding as well as receive patients in jails.

Missouri.—In 1871, at the St. Louis County Insane Asylum, 10 colored patients were treated during the year, presumably in the

wards with white patients. In 1875 Superintendent Howard says, "Separate accommodations should be provided for epileptics as well as colored patients." In 1887 Doctor LeGrand Atwood in his report, after discussing very intelligently and succinctly "Insanity in Negroes," concludes that, "as in the world social equality between the races is recognized as impossible, unattainable, and undesirable, so in an asylum a distinction should be made."

In 1892 Doctor Mueller had succeeded Doctor Atwood; and he reports that "the colored patients of all classes have so far been occupying the same apartments with the whites, which arrangement has many disadvantages and is not conducive to the comfort, nor is it likely to promote the welfare, of either race." In 1893 Doctor Mueller continues to ask for relief in this direction, and recommends that a frame building on the asylum grounds known as the Cottage be turned over to the colored female patients.

No particulars were attainable from the reports of the State asylums of Missouri.

North Carolina.— In March, 1875, the General Assembly of North Carolina appropriated $10,000 to provide a branch asylum for colored insane, at Wilmington, to be subject to the same superintendence, rules, and regulations as in the institution for whites at Raleigh, where a small number of negroes had been under care since emancipation.

The act also provided that the expenditures for each patient should not exceed $200 per annum. As the directors empowered to carry out the purposes of this act were unable to effect a lease of the Marine Hospital building in Wilmington, the first steps toward establishing a separate hospital for the colored insane of North Carolina were temporarily obstructed.

In 1878 an appropriation was made to build for the colored insane a separate asylum at Goldsboro. The building having been completed, it was occupied in 1880, and has since been successfully maintained as a separate and distinct hospital in the centre of the colored population of North Carolina.

In his report for 1890–92 Doctor P. L. Murphy, of the Morganton Hospital, says: "Of the 1,732 insane reported by the United States Census for 1890, 1,322 are white and 410 colored. In round numbers the capacity of this hospital is 550; the Raleigh Asylum, 300; the Eastern Hospital (for colored people) at Goldsboro, 300,—

making 1,150 insane provided for and 582 not in any institutions. In this district we have 281 white insane persons not in the hospital. In the Eastern district there are 191, and there are 110 colored people throughout the State. It is seen by these figures that all the institutions need enlarging, this one most of all, and the one at Goldsboro the least. North Carolina has provided better for the negro insane than for the white."

Arkansas.— In the first report of the Arkansas Lunatic Asylum for 1883 Doctor Forbes, the superintendent, in discussing the classification of patients, expresses the opinion that "there is an incompatibility in the races that demands emphatically and imperatively their separation and segregation." A year later Doctor Forbes reiterates his opinion, and remarks that "it [the separation of the races] is not a one-sided question, nor yet entirely a matter of taste. It does not depend more upon the habits of thought of such and such a one, from force of custom, than upon the character and training of the population to be affected by the movement. What might seem unnecessary or inexpedient in New York might be deemed most desirable and proper in Arkansas, as it is decided to be in Washington City. Certainly, the legal status of the colored population as regards the different localities may be that of perfect equality with the whites; while the social status, which is of far more importance as to the influence of association in a hospital for the insane, may be widely different."

"The opinion obtains here," Doctor Forbes continues, "more generally that the races retain so much incompatibility, as they probably will for this and the next and may be for many generations, that a certain degree of friction, from a want of affinity, will undoubtedly prevail where they are congregated under the same régime. Under this view of the question it is unequivocably and earnestly recommended that steps be taken and means provided for their separation under the same administration. In this expression no discrimination is intended. It is only meant that each should be assigned to circumstances and surroundings that would be more agreeable and congenial to both, and therefore much more likely to conduce to desirable results in the treatment of their special maladies."

Louisiana.— In the asylum at Jackson the colored insane numbered 199 in 1882 and 347 in 1884, as shown by the reports. The

superintendent, Doctor Perkins, says in 1890: "Our buildings for the care of colored patients are far inadequate to the demand. . . . Each room must accommodate five patients. This is a state of affairs which is in open conflict with all laws of health, comfort, and security, and should not be allowed to exist." In 1892 there were admitted 69 colored men and 57 colored women.

Delaware.— In a recent letter Doctor Hancker, of the Delaware State Hospital, expresses his views as follows: —

"Owing to limited accommodations, we are compelled to associate upon the same wards both white and colored patients. This summer we will add detached buildings, and then I shall isolate the two races I think it is detrimental to all concerned to compel the white patients to affiliate with the colored race."

Florida.— From this State I have not been able to get reports or other information.

In the preparation of this paper I have, so far as possible, made my citations from the reports of men actively engaged in the practical administration of State charities. Obviously, these opinions have not been prepared for the purpose for which they are now used. All these reports indicate the most earnest and strenuous efforts on the part of asylum officers to obtain from legislatures the means of carrying out the purposes of great public institutions irrespective of race, color, or condition of servitude.

The opinion seems largely to prevail among these authorities that the separation of white and colored patients in lunatic asylums — in the Southern States, at least — is to the advantage of both races. In Virginia and North Carolina the geographical distribution of the negroes near the Atlantic seaboard has clearly indicated the need of separate and independent asylums for their insane near their centre of population. Although similar plans have been proposed in several other States, they have not been carried into effect for economical reasons mainly, but also because the negroes are more uniformly distributed through the other States.

Such is the history of this vital problem, as I find it recorded. In many places the record is most honorable, in others it is not creditable. Even in small and wealthy communities it requires a long period to educate public opinion to make proper provision for the insane. In this particular phase of the question to secure legislative co-operation has not always been an easy task; but, whatever

of disappointment the past may have buried with it, the present and future are more encouraging and hopeful.

Mr. James Bryce, in his philosophical study of our "American Commonwealth," devotes to the "Present and Future of the Negro" a chapter, in which he concludes, "And, as the present differences between the African and the European are the product of thousands of years, during which one race was advancing in the temperate and the other remaining stationary in the torrid zone, so centuries may pass before their relations as neighbors and fellow-citizens may be duly adjusted. . . . Revolutions of sentiment are no doubt conceivable, but they are more rare than revolutions in politics."

THE INCREASE OF INSANITY.

BY F. B. SANBORN, OF MASSACHUSETTS.

Ever since a few of us met in the city of New York in May, 1874, at the call of the American Social Science Association, and there formed the nucleus around which this great deliberative body has grown,— yes, for more than twenty-five years,— the problem of the constant increase of insanity has forced itself on the attention of all those who, like myself, had an official connection with the commitment and care of the insane. For we had noticed, and our reports had shown (mine began in 1864, when I was secretary of the Massachusetts Board of State Charities), that the number of the insane under public care was growing rapidly. It was apparently checked a little in the United States by the Civil War (1861 to 1865), for many of the insane were in the great armies then contending; but no sooner did the war end than insanity began to increase again here. It had been steadily gaining ground in Great Britain and Ireland, from the first dates that furnished reasonably exact statistics; and now the same remark is true, I think, of every civilized country. So great has the increase been — far beyond the gain in population — that some alarm has been felt lest insanity should become a dominant element in our recent civilization. Indeed, a whimsical but

trenchant German writer, Max Nordau, seems to have taken that view in his work on "Degeneration" (*Dégénérescence*), lately translated, and now extensively read in America and England. At all events, the experts of insanity in Great Britain and elsewhere have been called on to explain why it is that, with all their improved apparatus for the treatment of the insane,— costly hospitals, trained attendants, special medical care, study of brain disease and brain function,— nevertheless insanity goes on doubling itself.

Various and conflicting explanations have been given for the past twenty years. We have been first told that all the appliances of high civilization, specially in cities and other places of dense population, favor and promote the access of insanity; and then we have been assured that there was no actual increase of new cases (what is called "occurring insanity"), but only an accumulation of unrecovered cases and of persons not formerly reckoned insane, but now swept into the count by closer and more recent classification. Both these statements are true to some extent, though they tend to contradict each other. The appliances and tendencies of high civilization do develop insanity beyond the measure of past centuries; and, in my opinion, they do more than counteract the improvements made in treating insanity. It is also true that, as compared with half a century ago, the classification of mental disease and impairment has become more strict; and many persons are now returned as insane in England, for instance, who would not have been included in that class in 1845, when Lord Ashley, since better known as Lord Shaftesbury, carried through his act establishing a Lunacy Commission. But can this change alone account for the registered fact that the reported insane increased from about 25,000 in 1849 to more than 90,000 in 1894,— that is, they nearly quadrupled,— while the population of England and Wales hardly doubled,— that is, gained from 16,000,000 in 1849 to about 31,000,000 in 1894?

In Scotland, where exact statistics have only been collected since 1859, when the admirable Scotch Commission in Lunacy, established in part through the efforts of our countrywoman, Miss Dix, began its Reports, the proportionate increase has been nearly as great. In 1859 there were reported 5,795 insane persons, and in 1894 13,300; that is, 192 in every 100,000 Scots at the first date and 325 in every 100,000 last year. In Ireland a still more striking fact is reported; for, while population there has been fast decreasing (from

5,798,960 in 1862 to 4,704,750 in 1892), the reported insane have gone up from 8,055 in 1862 to 16,689 in 1892.

These startling figures have led several Irish experts to consider seriously the causes of what is taking place in that island; and at the last annual meeting of the British Medico-Psychological Association, in Dublin last June, Doctor Conolly Norman, its president, declared against monster asylums, and in favor of the methods of family care and detached buildings, by which Saxony, Belgium, and some parts of Germany are checking the increase of insanity. And Thomas Drapes, an asylum superintendent at Enniscorthy, showed, by an interesting paper, that first admissions (occurring insanity) had increased 32 per cent. in Ireland from 1868 to 1892. His exact words are: "The ratio of first admissions to population has increased considerably, and this must be regarded as indicating a decided increase in occurring insanity. The official inspectors of asylums in Ireland in 1893 came to the same conclusion. Their language was, "The annual increase, in the face of a shrinking population, of the number of first admissions, including, as it does, such a large proportion of first attacks of insanity, almost irresistibly points to some increase of occurring insanity in particular districts."

Now, if this increase is found anywhere, it may be assumed to exist elsewhere. Why do I say this? It would not be true, because cholera is found every year in Russia and Turkey, that therefore it exists constantly in Ireland and Connecticut. Nevertheless, I believe it to be true that the proof of an increase in new cases of insanity, *pro rata*, in Ireland and Massachusetts does furnish a strong presumption that a similar evil exists in all countries where the accumulation of the chronic insane goes on so fast as we know it does,— in the whole United States, in Great Britain, in Germany, France, Italy, and wherever we have careful returns of the yearly situation.

In an article published by my good friend Doctor Tuke (whose recent death we all lament) in his *Journal of Mental Science* (London, April, 1894) I showed conclusively that new cases of insanity had been increasing in Massachusetts in the fifteen years from 1878 to 1893, or ever since the new tables of statistical return prepared by the late Doctor Earle and myself had been in use. These tables, for the first time, made it possible to discriminate between new hospital cases of insanity and those repeated readmissions which, until Doctor Earle exploded the fallacy, had served to raise the alleged

rate of recoveries far beyond the real fact. They also, after a period of years, have enabled us to reach a fairly accurate conclusion as to the length of the insane life, the death-rate of the insane as compared with the sane of the same ages, and several other points of much importance.

Another feature of my London article was the proposition that, so long as the death-rate of the insane (confessedly twice or thrice that of the sane) and the recovery-rate, taken together, do not prevent the great accumulation of the chronic insane in asylums or in the general population, there must be an increase in new cases beyond the ratio of population-increase; since otherwise this accumulation could not be kept up. I see no escape from this reasoning. If the death-rate does not fall, it must be from the accession of new cases, since we know that it is in acute insanity that the mortality is much the largest; but, if the accumulation does not cease, it must be because new cases furnish more material of chronic insanity than even this high death-rate can diminish.

A singular confirmation of this reasoning appears in a paper read by Doctor T. A. Chapman, of the English County Asylum in Hereford, at the Dublin meeting of last summer, just mentioned. Hereford is a little county on the border of England and Wales, in extent less than Rhode Island, and in population less than Delaware; yet it has more paupers than either (4,458 in a population of 113,391), and more insane in proportion to its population than any English county. By the census of 1891, while all England had 325 insane for every 100,000 inhabitants, Hereford had 460 *pauper* lunatics in every 100,000, and enough more who were not paupers to bring the rate up to 520 insane for every 100,000. Hereford also had 328 out of every 100,000 in asylums as against 196 in all England, so that its admission and death-rate, as well as its age-tables, could be more exactly computed. Now, the average age of all these Hereford insane in asylums was nearly 51 years for both sexes and 52½ years for women; while in all England it was nearly 46 years only, and for women less than 47. Consequently, there is a lower death-rate in Hereford than in the rest of England; for it is among the insane of less than forty years that new cases and deaths are most frequent. Now, in eleven years past, in Hereford, the average age of the resident insane has increased by three years; while the death-rate, naturally, has decreased. Yet, low as the present death-rate is among the

Hereford insane, it is nearly three times as large as among the whole population of England, sane and insane, the exact figures given by Doctor Chapman being 50.6 in every 1,000 for his insane, and only 19 for the corresponding ages in all England.

Now, assuming what is not far from the fact, that there are 100,000 insane persons in England and Wales, and 30,700,000 persons of all sorts, of whom 10,000,000 are children below the age to be attacked with insanity; and seeing that, of the 100,000 insane, at least 5,000 (probably 7,000) die in a year, while, of the 20,600,000 sane persons exposed to insanity, only 400,000 die in a year,— it will be seen that the proportion of the insane to the sane must continually diminish, unless new cases increase. For, while from 5 per cent. to 7 per cent. of the insane yearly die, only 2 per cent. of the sane die. Add to this high percentage of insane deaths the number who recover annually (from 7,000 to 10,000), and it will be seen how rapid must be the increase of new cases, in order to keep the English insane even from diminishing. But in fact, during the twenty years from 1871 to 1891, they did increase from 69,019 to 97,383,— more than 40 per cent., or at the average rate of 2 per cent. a year. In Massachusetts, as shown by the table in my London article, the resident insane increased in fifteen years more than 6 per cent. annually, and the new cases increased 6½ per cent., the population in the same time gaining about 3 per cent.

Doctor Drapes, speaking for Ireland, says: "Will the increase of insanity ever reach its limit? Not," he answers, "until the discharges and deaths come to equal the admissions. Our death-rate is increasing, our discharge-rate remains fairly constant; but our admission-rate continues to rise." Doctor Tuke, using the Irish figures of Doctor Drapes, and combining them with the English tables published by him in the same journal that contained my article, added some startling deductions at the Dublin meeting. He showed that, while in England the rate of first admissions above population in the seventeen years, 1875–93, was but 6 per cent., and seemed to be slightly decreasing in the last five years, in Ireland the rate had increased in the last five years by 60 per cent., after allowing for the Irish decrease of population. Where Ireland increased 36 per cent. in twenty years, in her insane (admissions), England had increased but 6 per cent.; and in mere accumulation, where Ireland gained 60 per cent. of insanity, England gained but 22 per cent. It further ap-

peared in the Dublin debate that in the Irish county (Kerry) which showed the largest emigration (20.3 emigrants for every 1,000 inhabitants) there had been the greatest gain in first admissions of the insane; for while in the ten years, 1872–82, there were but 538 first admissions in Kerry, there were 826 in the ten years, 1882–92. One explanation of the more rapid accumulation of the Irish insane as compared with England was the small number of general paralytics in Ireland; the Cork asylum, for instance, with 1,200 patients, having only 4 paretics and only 85 epileptics. Doctor Conolly at the end of the discussion made this Bunsby-like remark: "Changes in the condition of life are really at the bottom of the increase of insanity in Ireland, be it apparent or be it real." To which all the people will say "Amen," and "God forbid!"

Having reached the conclusions above named,— that is, (1) that occurring insanity has increased beyond the gain in population both in Ireland and in Massachusetts, as shown by careful statistics; and (2) that, so long as the death-rate of the insane is double that of the sane, any considerable accumulation of the chronic insane must be due to a corresponding increase in new cases,— I own I was disappointed at finding that a recent Special Report of the Scotch Lunacy Commissioners (Dec. 24, 1894), devoted wholly to the question of the increase of insanity in that country, does not show any evidence that occurring insanity is gaining in Scotland beyond the ratio of increasing population. This is a Board of great authority and of careful research; and this particular Report was the work of Sir Arthur Mitchell, who has just retired from the Board after many years' service, of Doctor John Sibbald, who has also had many years' experience, and, finally, of Mr. T. W. L. Spence, the accomplished secretary of the Board, who pursued a new and interesting line of inquiry concerning the increase of private patients among the Scotch insane. The opinion of either of these gentlemen, in a matter which he had investigated, is entitled to great respect; and, when they agree in one opinion, the probability that they are correct is much increased. Nevertheless, I believe that their method of inquiry is so impaired by a lack of complete statistical data, and by a prepossession in favor of the conclusion at which they arrived, that their verdict, otherwise entitled to great weight, need not be accepted even for Scotland, while it has little or no bearing on the facts collected and put in evidence in Ireland and Massachusetts.

Two things are obviously needful to a full statistical investigation of the prevalence of insanity at a given date as compared with its prevalence at a later date. The first is a complete register of all cases of the disease at the two dates taken: the second is a similar register of the incidence and disposal of all cases occurring between the two dates,— how many came under observation for the first time, how many recovered, how many died, and how many disappeared from view without either death or permanent recovery. For instance, if the Scotch gentlemen could state exactly the whole number of insane persons anywhere in Scotland in 1874, the corresponding number in 1894, and then all the first admissions, deaths, recoveries, and other disappearances in the whole kingdom between these two dates, it would not be hard to say, knowing the population as a whole in 1874 and 1894, whether insanity in Scotland (new cases) was gaining or losing ground. No such fulness of data being even claimed for Scotland (or as yet for any country or region), the best that can be done is to approximate to this desired but unattainable exactness. This Sir Arthur Mitchell and his colleagues undertake to do; and their several methods are ingenious, sincere, and laborious. But they all start with a belief that they shall not find any increase of new cases, beyond the population-rate, in the twenty years; and, as we generally find what we look for, and only now and then come upon the unexpected, so here they could find no considerable gain in new cases.

But let us suppose that they or we or any other inquirers into this important but perplexed question should have taken certain fixed points from which to reckon,— for instance, all the visible population, both sane and insane, at a given date,— then consider the actual deaths in this classified population for twenty years, and the visible number living at the end of that time,— and see what conclusion is forced upon us by the computation. It will appear in Scotland, for example, that the sane population in 1855 was about 2,970,000, and the insane 7,400; that in 1894 the sane had increased to 4,111,000, or 39 per cent., while the insane had grown to nearly 14,000, a gain of 85 per cent. Yet in this period of nearly thirty years the insane had been dying at a rate more than twice as large as the sane deaths of the same ages. They had also been recovering at a still higher rate; and yet so many were the new cases, or those for the first time visible, that the insane, who should have decreased, actually gained

faster than the sane. Where could this gain have come from for the past dozen years, if not from an increasing number of new cases? In the years immediately following 1874 it might be supposed that a stricter classification of the insane would lead to an apparent increase; but this could not long continue to offset the natural decrease by the double death-rate, which, from figures given by Doctor Sibbald in his paper, was for Scotland at least a treble death-rate, being more than 60 in 1,000 cases of the insane. The average death-rate for the sane of all ages above ten years in Scotland is not before me; but it cannot well have exceeded 20 in 1,000, and was probably less than this. Therefore, if three insane persons died for every sane man and woman in Scotland, it could not be many years, unless new cases of insanity also increased fast, before the accumulation of the chronic insane of that country would cease, and a diminution would begin, since all the while recoveries would be going on, and would still farther reduce the material for chronic insanity.

A presumption in favor of the increase in new cases of insanity — not necessarily of *acute* cases — is therefore raised by the mere fact of the accumulation of chronic insanity; and this presumption is strengthened by the fact, which will hardly be questioned, that the insane die much faster than the sane, while yet the accumulation steadily continues, and shows no sign of material diminution. But in certain regions (in Massachusetts, for example), where an actual count of new cases has been made for fifteen years, with some approach to accuracy, it is found that they do increase beyond the gain in population. That is to say, the increase which accumulation and inference make highly probable is found, in fact, to exist, and to continue from year to year. Hence we reason (and there seems to be no flaw in the argument) that, if the same pains were taken as in Massachusetts to compute the exact number of new cases of insanity, it would be found even in Scotland, as it has been found in Ireland, that occurring insanity, not less than chronic insanity, is really gaining ground. It is not necessary to suppose that it gains equally fast everywhere; but, until some reasonably exact registration is made of cases which are actually *new*,— that is, appear for treatment for the first time,— we have no right to say that such new cases are not increasing beyond the natural gain in population. It is difficult to prove a negative, especially when all reasonable inference from observed facts tends to an affirmative.

A single word as to the real causes of the increase of insanity, which, in the form of accumulation, everybody admits, and which I have shown also to exist in Ireland and in Massachusetts, in the form of new cases.

It is within the observation of most physicians who have the care of the insane that the insanity of physical degeneration, resulting from syphilis, paralysis, intemperance, under-feeding, epilepsy, etc., is growing more and more common. These are the least hopeful forms of insanity; and it is their prevalence which seems to have caused a diminution in the rate of recoveries, almost everywhere noticed within the last twenty years. Cases really acute, and not complicated with these forms of disease and degeneracy, recover as easily and as fast as ever; and there is even a tendency to virtual recoveries of the chronic insane, which was not so much noted until recent years. But the crowding of population into cities in all civilized countries, and the growth of vice and disease consequent upon this rapid growth of city populations, have increased those degenerative tendencies noticed by Nordau and other writers, and have thus made certain forms of insanity not only more frequent, but less curable. There is a natural limit to this melancholy state of things, and there are limitations and palliatives which science can apply; but it does not seem that we have yet reached that limit or that those remedial agencies have yet been effectively applied. Till that is done, insanity must continue both to accumulate and to increase actively.

IX.

Child-saving Work.

TRADE SCHOOLS: THEIR PLACE IN INDUSTRY, EDUCATION, AND PHILANTHROPY.

BY PROFESSOR CHARLES R. RICHARDS, PRATT INSTITUTE, BROOKLYN, N.Y.

That there is no longer an opportunity for a boy to secure an adequate training in the mechanical trades through the old apprenticeship system is now almost universally recognized. Articles are constantly appearing in the various trade papers with statements of the complete decay into which the system has fallen, and deploring the severe lack of properly trained craftsmen. The legally bound apprentice, living for a term of years in the household of his master, has undoubtedly passed away for all time. In the report of the Commissioner of Labor for the State of New York, for 1886, it is stated that no case of a legally indentured apprentice was found during that year in the entire State. Not only is the principle of the system under which the old apprentice served his time out of harmony with the spirit of to-day, but the industrial conditions that made the system practicable have entirely changed. The causes for this disappearance of the apprentice are to be found in the great industrial and social changes that have occurred during the last century. Previous to that time a term of apprenticeship was the universally recognized method of entering upon a trade. Under this system a youth entering upon a trade was bound to a master workman for a term of years by a legal instrument called an indenture. By the terms of this instrument the master became the legal guardian of the apprentice. He agreed to receive him into his household and watch over his moral welfare, as well as to instruct him in all the details of his craft. This system of apprenticeship formed a universally accepted feature of the social system throughout Europe,

from the Middle Ages down almost to our own day, and was closely related throughout its early history to the acquirement of political rights and privileges on the part of the apprentice. The length of the apprenticeship was generally fixed by law, and varied in the different countries. In England it was seven years, in France three or four years, and in Germany two to four years.

As long as industrial operations were confined to hand work, this system fulfilled its purpose naturally and effectively. Throughout this period the unit of industrial production was the master workman and his corps of journeymen, and the working-place was the household shop. The master workman in those days was not only the employer, he was first of all the master craftsman, and himself worked in the shop among his men. The number of journeymen under any one master was comparatively small, and the master's relations with his men were direct and intimate. The thorough instruction of apprentices under these conditions was not only natural and convenient, but was strongly for the master's interest, in order that their services might return him as great a profit as possible.

But the steam-engine and the introduction of machinery changed all this. The economic advantage of quantity production appeared, the household shop changed gradually into the factory, and the master workman into the manufacturer and contractor. With these changes the old relations between the master and the apprentice, between the teacher and the learner, have ceased. The employer and director no longer works in the shop among his men, but controls the movements of an industrial establishment from his office.

In such an establishment each member has his specific duties. Every division of work and responsibility is provided for with the greatest nicety, but nowhere is there provision for the apprentice. He has been left out in the new adjustment of things. No one has taken the place of the master as his instructor, and he has become an anomaly and an outcast. As a consequence of this changed state of things, the few boys who now gain the opportunity of learning a trade are generally set to petty drudgery about the shops or put to such small tasks as can be most readily mastered, and kept upon these for long periods, to the neglect of comprehensive training. As a matter of fact, the apprentice is left to pick up the practice of his trade by observation, and such opportunities as chance and the good nature of his fellow-workmen afford. Under such conditions

the opportunities for a thorough, all-round training are extremely rare; and the common result is one-sided and superficial. From the position of a necessary and valuable assistant the apprentice has come to be regarded as a nuisance that few employers care to burden themselves with.

In our own country another influence has been long operating to stamp out the little that is left of the apprenticeship system. This influence is the attitude of the American labor unions, whose rules to-day amount practically to a prohibition of young men entering the trades. Believing that greatest return to the individual is gained by limiting the number of workers in the trades, and that the highest rate of wages per day is the sole index of prosperity, the labor unions have enforced more and more stringent rules against the number of apprentices allowed to each employer, until the present proportion has reached an amount absurdly inadequate to supply the labor market.

This attitude toward the apprentice has been largely consequent upon the great increase of late years in the proportion of foreign-born workmen in all the trades of this country. For many years the steady immigration of foreign workmen has been enormous. These workmen are immediately received into the unions, derive the benefits of their organization and a voice in their affairs. The influx has been going on for so long a time and at such a rate that to-day foreign-born workmen form a majority of the labor unions in all of our largest cities. In 1880 the total number of men engaged in the trades of blacksmithing, mason-work, cabinet-making, carpentry, machine-building, painting, and plumbing in the city of Brooklyn was 18,487. Of this number 9,456 were foreign born. In New York City the total number was 42,498, and the number of foreign born was 24,974.

It is confessedly the fact that the large bulk of these immigrants are not of the better class of foreign workmen, but, on the contrary, are often of the poorest, the dregs of the foreign labor market, who have found it impossible to compete with better trained workmen at home, and who have come to this country to better their conditions. These men, often miserably trained, are at once admitted to the union, without any test of character or ability, the voucher of an acquaintance being the only form required. Brought up in comparative poverty in Europe, and regarding capital as a natural enemy

of labor, these men have introduced Old World prejudices and narrowness into American labor organizations, until to-day the unions of all our largest cities are unreservedly committed to the practical exclusion of the apprentice and to the principle of trade monopolies.

Between these two forces, the faces of the upper and the nether millstones, the American boy has indeed had a hard time of late to obtain an opening in the trades. It is to meet these changed conditions, and to supply the opportunity for a trade training, at once economical and effective, that the trade school has arisen.

The first practically successful school of this character in the United States was the New York Trade School established by Colonel R. T. Auchmuty in 1881. The work of this school is doubtless familiar to many persons here, as are also the articles printed in the *Century Magazine* some years ago, in which Colonel Auchmuty so eloquently and convincingly argued for the right of the American boy to share in the labor and industrial prosperity of his native country. Since their foundation over 5,000 young men have passed through the New York trade schools, and the reports received from a large number of these now upon record at the school indicate in a most convincing way the value of the training obtained there. The schools opened with an evening class in plumbing and fresco painting, with 33 students. The first day class in plumbing was opened in 1884. Evening and day classes in other subjects were subsequently added, until the number of students in 1894 was 556; and classes were instructed in plumbing, house-painting, fresco-painting, bricklaying, stone-cutting, plastering, carpentry, pipe-fitting, blacksmithing, and cornice-work.

The aim of these classes from the first has been to prepare for actual work at the trade in the shortest possible time. Courses of practical work are provided, in which instruction is reduced, to the most systematic form. Every exercise is designed to bring out some important operation or principle. When the learner is able to do one thing thoroughly, he passes on to a new and more difficult exercise. The reason for each exercise is carefully explained, and no operation is left behind without being clearly understood. In this way time is economized to the utmost, and the progress of the students is necessarily rapid. It is not the design of the New York Trade School to turn out the finished mechanic. The skill and speed of an accomplished workman come only with long-continued

practice; and such practice cannot, from economic considerations, be given in the school. Nor is this necessary. The essential thing is to equip the learner with a fair amount of skill in varied operations of the trade, together with a thorough grasp of the principles involved. With such a training the graduate is fitted to become at once a money-earning factor. He has skill for practical work in all except the question of speed, and future progress toward the journeyman's efficiency is natural and rapid.

One of the great problems — indeed, *the* great problem of the trade schools — is that of obtaining time sufficient for an effective training without encroaching too seriously upon the money-earning period of life. This problem was met by Colonel Auchmuty, first, by means of evening classes, which allowed the students to be engaged in a livelihood occupation during the day; and, second, by reducing the length of day classes to the minimum in which it was felt an efficient preparation for active work could be gained,— namely, to three months. The trade schools of the Pratt Institute and of the Philadelphia Master Builders' Exchange were founded upon the New York schools as a type; but at Pratt Institute the length of day courses is made nine months instead of three months, with the idea of giving more extended instruction in the trade schools at the cost, perhaps, of reaching fewer students. In all of these institutions the principle obtains of confining the instruction given in the schools to an essentially practical preparation for the trade, and to pupils of sufficient age, from seventeen to twenty-five, who learn rapidly, leaving the general education to be gained in the common schools previous to entering.

Upon quite a different idea from the above schools is the Williamson Free School of Mechanical Trades. This school was founded by the will of Isaiah T. Williamson, who died in 1889.

The idea of this institution is to approach as near as possible to the conditions of the apprenticeship system. All boys when admitted are bound as indentured apprentices to the trustees for a term of three years. This indenture may, however, be cancelled by the trustees for the scholar's incompetency or bad conduct, or if, in the trustees' opinion, the scholar has so advanced in his studies as to make it more advantageous for him to pursue his course elsewhere.

By the indenture the scholar is bound to conform to all the regulations and restrictions prescribed by the trustees, and all con-

trol over the pupil during the period he remains at the school is vested in the trustees.

Candidates are required to pass scholastic, moral, and physical examinations. Only natives of the United States are eligible; and no one is accepted who is not able-bodied, intelligent, healthy, and of good moral character. None are admitted who are under sixteen or over eighteen years of age.

Each boy on entering the school is given a preparatory course of six months in wood-working and mechanical drawing, as well as studies in the school-room. At the end of that time he is placed at one of the following three trades, the selection of which is made by the trustees, due regard being given to the inclination and adaptability of the pupil: —

Wood-working, in its branches of carpentry, pattern-making, and cabinet-making; building, including bricklaying and plastering; machine-work in its usual branches, including the management of steam-engines and boilers and electrical machinery.

The school day is eight hours in length, and the time of the pupil during the greater part of the course is divided about equally between shop and academic work.

In the academic work are included freehand and mechanical drawing, mathematics, science, and language.

The number of applications for the Williamson School has so far greatly exceeded the capacity of the school, which now contains 175 pupils. The benefits of the school are entirely free, no charge being made for boarding, clothing, or instruction. The boys are divided into families of twenty-four, each having its separate home or cottage, cared for by the occupants.

It will be seen that the plan of the Williamson School is radically different from that of the schools first described. In the latter the pupils are admitted between the ages of seventeen or eighteen and twenty-five, and are given a concentrated course of instruction bearing entirely upon a special trade, leaving the general education to be gained previous to entering. In the former, younger pupils, from sixteen to eighteen, are taken, and kept for a period of three years, during which time they are instructed in the elements of a general education as well as in trade processes. Each of these schools represents a type, and it is perhaps too early as yet to say which is best calculated to fit our American conditions and perform most naturally and efficiently the office of the trade school.

It is of interest in this connection to examine what has been accomplished in the direction of trade-training upon the continent of Europe. Here the necessity of some provision better suited than the apprenticeship system to modern industrial conditions has long been recognized, and the idea of trade schools has there been a familiar one throughout the present century. In Austria, Germany, Switzerland, Belgium, and France, particularly, a large amount of study and experiment has been given to the problem; and in these countries there exist to-day many hundreds of industrial schools.

In Germany and Austria the system of trade schools is very thorough and much specialized. General industrial schools (*Gewerbeschulen*), in which a number of trades are taught, are found throughout the two countries; while special trade schools (*Fachschulen*), in which one particular branch is dealt with, are distributed according to local needs. Thus there are special trade schools for silk-weaving, linen-weaving, watch-making, wood-working, mason-work, locksmithing, machine-work, brewing, leather-work, etc., in the towns or districts where these industries are prominent. Courses in such schools are generally from three to five years in length, and embrace, besides practical trade-training, instruction in mechanical and free-hand drawing, mathematics, book-keeping, and science. From the nature and extent of the instruction, many of these schools should be classified as technical schools, and even in the *Fachschulen* (special schools), where the courses are often shorter, and the academic instruction less extended, the large amount of time required prevents their benefits being very generally reaped by the artisan class. The actual effect of these schools is, in consequence, rather to prepare a limited number of graduates fitted for superior workmen and foremen than to supply a means of training the main army of workmen.

The aim of the Belgian schools approaches more nearly to that of a true trade school. Trade proficiency rather than an all-round education is the end sought. Mental instruction is, indeed, generally provided; but its character is chiefly limited to such branches as have a practical bearing upon the trade. It is true that in many of the industrial schools where pupils are admitted at twelve and thirteen years of age the course of instruction is arranged to supply, in a manner, the lack of further public school instruction; but in the institutions of more advanced standing, which the pupils enter

at fifteen or sixteen, the studies are almost entirely technical in character.

It is in France, however, that the European trade school has reached its highest development, and where the problem of a school to train workmen has been most nearly solved. The best examples of such schools are the manual apprenticeship schools, into which boys are admitted at thirteen years of age. These schools are municipal institutions that are part of the free public school system, and rank with what are called in France advanced primary schools. They are, in fact, elementary trade schools, which devote the great part of a three years' course to practical manual work. The aim of these schools is not to turn out full-fledged workmen, but rather to shorten the period of apprenticeship. Mental instruction of much the same character as in the advanced primary schools is given through the course to the extent of three or four hours a day.

The most complete school of this character is the École Diderot at Paris. In this school are taught forging, metal-turning, locksmithing, manufacture of instruments of precision, pattern-making, carpentry, and wood-turning. Instruction is free to the sons of residents of Paris. Pupils at admission must be between thirteen and sixteen years of age. They come, in most cases, directly from the primary schools of the city. The course is three years in length. The school day is eight and one-half to nine hours long, and is divided between shop and class-room instruction. In the first and second years four and one-half hours a day are spent in the workshop, and six and one-half in the third year, while four hours a day are devoted to the class-room work in the first two years, and three hours in the third. The class-room instruction includes French language, history, science, mathematics, mechanics, and drawing. During the first year all pupils pass successively through the different shops for wood and iron, with the view of finding out their special aptitude. During the last two years they devote themselves to the trade that they have chosen, with the consent of their parents. The work performed by the pupils of this school reaches a high degree of excellence, and the graduates are said to have no difficulty in obtaining good positions upon leaving school. It is also stated that the school is looked upon with much favor by the working classes. Up to 1892 the whole number of graduates of the schools was 880; and, out of the 756 whose occupations are known,

660, or 87.3 per cent., were reported as pursuing some trade. There are similar schools in Paris, of equally thorough character and of similar methods, for the book-making and furniture trades.

It will be seen from this brief description that in this country and in Europe there have become established two types of trade schools, each of which presents strongly marked features, but which vary widely in their methods. In what is distinctively the American plan young men of some maturity are given short, *specialized* courses of instruction, which allow them to enter at once upon practical work. This plan has the advantage of dealing with young men who are sufficiently old to know what they want, and to apply themselves seriously to work. It also affords a training with the shortest possible expenditure of time, and consequently is the most economical school to the pupil. The expense of maintenance of such schools is reduced to the minimum, and their capacity in proportion to their cost is large. The second plan has not been tried for a sufficient time in this country to prove whether it is or is not adapted to our conditions. It certainly possesses the great advantage of dealing with boys at the age nearer the period when the majority leave the public schools, and when the problem of existence begins for boys of the poorer classes. Such schools also insure sound general training. Their economic problems are, however, much more severe. They require a much longer time to be spent at the school, with the consequent increase in individual expense and the great question of support on the part of poor parents. Even in the Paris schools large numbers of the pupils are unable for this reason to finish the course. Such schools are, also, on account of the length of time and number of instructors required, much more expensive to support than those of the first kind.

This latter is, of course, a very important factor, inasmuch as special schools of this character are not likely, at least not for some time, to be established by communities, but must depend for support upon trade organizations or upon private munificence.

It is one of these plans, however, that by further experience will doubtless be developed into the trade school of the future. The trade school in some form has become an industrial necessity, and in some form it will doubtless prove the means of opening up to American boys a wide field for honest, self-respecting effort, and at the same time become a great influence in raising the standard of American labor and of the American workman.

PROBLEMS OF AN INSTITUTION: SCRAPS OF EXPERIENCE.

BY WALTER A. WHEELER, MASSACHUSETTS.

Of the many problems that present themselves to the superintendent of an institution for the training of neglected or delinquent children, three only will form the subject of this brief paper.

First, the choice and direction of officers. This is a problem so important, so vital in its bearing upon the work, that a lack of judgment in selecting or the absence of tact in managing results in complete failure or seriously handicaps the whole race. Institution work seems to have attractions for many men and women; and, when it is known that a vacancy exists in the corps of officers of an institution, applications come in from young and old, from the experienced and inexperienced, from the fit and unfit, by mail and in person, with letters of reference and without such credentials. And wise, indeed, is the superintendent who can from this mass sift the wheat from the chaff, especially as much of the latter is certified to, by supposedly trustworthy sources, as the finest grain.

But we will suppose the complement of officers to be full and work begun. The superintendent will soon find, as it takes all sorts of people to make a world, that he has representatives of many sorts among his corps. As offering no room for discussion, we dismiss without a word those officers, sometimes met with in institutions, who are more important than the superintendent himself, and whose knowledge is superior to his; those who are gruff and impatient in manner and speech; those who do not love boys or who have forgotten that they were ever children themselves; and, certainly, those whose habits we find to be such as to render them unsafe guides to our children. Omitting these, I say, we have yet a band of men and women, not perfect, whom we must direct and with whom we must labor, the problem being a concert of action toward definite results. Ends and aims must be definitely understood, and methods discussed with these our fellow-helpers.

When the number of officers is large, meetings may be profitably held at stated times, at which meetings the fullest interchange of views should be invited, the absence of formality promoting freedom

and confidence. Nor will the officers alone be benefited by such conferences. The superintendent himself, if he knows anything as he ought to know it, will share equally with the rest. In smaller schools, and where there is daily contact with each officer, such meetings are less necessary,

Give heed to any fair proposition by an officer, encourage individuality, allow elasticity, stimulate invention on the part of an officer, and give him due credit for his effort and the results achieved. An officer may have a hobby, and often it is better for a boy to ride a hobby than a bicycle. In my own institution one of my faithful officers is an enthusiast over Indian relics. We live near an old Indian camping-ground. The result is that many of our boys may be safely trusted to go unattended outside of our grounds; for with all the eagerness of their master they scan the ground for arrow-heads or Indian pestles, and rarely return unrewarded. Another desires to make his boys' play-room more attractive, and, enlisting the boys' interest in the scheme, transforms an ugly loft into a pleasant reading-room. The work being theirs, it is enjoyed as a personal good.

In my opinion, directing in an indirect way, developing this or curbing that so quietly that the officer really congratulates himself as having invented the one or corrected the other himself, is the very ideal of institution management. I admit that this method of meeting the problem of direction of officers may not appeal very strongly to the vanity of the superintendent; but the best work I have ever seen has been accomplished along this line.

The second problem with which this paper deals is that of monotony in an institution. How far is it beneficial, what are its limits and abuses?

No large number of children of any age can be properly trained or brought up together without system, and that system will of course be modified by the character of the children thus brought together. Boys and girls in our reformatory institutions come to us, as a rule, without any training worthy the name; and one of the first lessons needful for them to learn is the lesson of method, order, system. For example, a boy of fourteen years here learns for the first time in his life to rise at an appointed time, to wash his face and comb his hair, to sit properly at the table, to wait for others to be helped, to obey *at once* the orders of the master, to be respectful in word and mien, and to go and come in order. He learns also what

he never knew before, to curb his temper and bridle his tongue,— a valuable lesson, indeed. He must not be late at school, he must be prompt at his physical or military drill, his manual training work must be precisely and carefully done. In short, order, attention, and application, the three prime requisites of all training, are everywhere demanded and always emphasized.

All this is right, it is eminently proper,— in fact, it is indispensable. But right here let the superintendent pause a moment, and look a danger in the face, lest system become automatic, a meaningless thing, an end rather than a means to an end.

In the early days of that great engineering enterprise, the Hoosac tunnel, a boring machine was invented, of which great things were expected. It was ponderous, it was complicated, ingeniously contrived, and it would run; but it would not work. Resort was then had to the old laborious drilling process, which, patiently pursued, resulted in success. It is much the same in an institution. The more ponderous the machine, the more automatic its running, the less real work will it do for the boys and girls. What, if not disastrous, can be the effect of that dull monotony in the management of an institution which enables a boy to predict, with the certainty of an astronomer foretelling an eclipse, just exactly what he will have for breakfast, dinner, and supper, or just what he will be doing a week, a month, or a year from the day his calculations were made? I will admit that such an institution may be easy to run, that it may even be the wonder and pride of its locality; but Heaven pity the boys! If there is magic for a boy in any one word, it is in the word *to-morrow*. He, by nature, thinks about it, talks about it,— in short, he lives for it. Take it out of his life, and what have we left him? Evidently, the past, which we wish him to forget, and to-day, which without the incentive of to-morrow loses more than half its interest. Hope, the anticipation of a different and better to-morrow, inspires an adult. It electrifies a boy.

Let the superintendent, then, endeavor to make a larger to-morrow for his boys. Let him talk over his plans for it with them. He may appoint special occasions, days and even weeks ahead, as he would do with his own children around his own fireside; and the eager look, the brightening eye, the elastic step, and his own kindling interest in the boys themselves will more than repay him for his pains.

It may be thought by some that we are dealing with an imaginary

evil, and that, in point of fact, no real danger exists along the lines which we have pointed out. The late Colonel Gardner Tufts, whose work as superintendent of the Massachusetts State Primary School, and later as superintendent of the Massachusetts Reformatory at Concord, will be long remembered by those who knew him, is reported to have said, in consideration of the dangers of ruts and monotony, that no person ought to be at the head of an institution more than five consecutive years. That may be too radical treatment for the disease and extra hazardous to the patient, but nothing but the most vigilant watchfulness and untiring interest on the part of a superintendent will prevent this constant tendency toward dull uniformity.

The third and last problem which we will consider is the personal relation of a superintendent to his boys. Although this subject is worthy of an entire paper or a whole evening, an outline only will be given. Just how intimate may be the relation of a superintendent with his charge, and how well he may know them personally, must depend on several conditions,— the number under his care, the longer or shorter their stay in the institution, perhaps also upon the system in vogue, whether the congregate or family; but it will always, under any system or conditions, largely depend upon the character and sympathies of the man himself.

The teacher, the care-taker, the family master and mistress, all are more or less intimate or should be with the children. They should and do have their confidence; and, if these officers do not feel a deep interest in their charges, they are not fit for their positions, no matter what their other qualifications may be. But it is, after all, to the superintendent that the boys look, not only for final judgment and justice, but they have a right also to expect a most solicitous interest and cordial sympathy. To the boy there is no smile like his superintendent's, no hand-grasp like his. His love is food and drink for the boy's hungry and thirsty soul. Whatever else a superintendent may be called upon to do,— and his calls are many and his duties varied, demanding business tact and administrative ability,— if he fail thus to get the key to the hearts of his boys, he may as well surrender the other keys to his institution; for they are worthless without it.

Possessing this key, what possibilities for good open to the conscientious man? Possibilities to know the mind, to become acquainted with the habits of thought, and so to apply the remedy for

this error or to fan that feeble spark of good into aspirations for a noble life. Here the Golden Rule, the remembrance of his own boyhood, his father's counsel and his mother's gentle hand laid upon his boyish head, furnish a safe guide to the superintendent in his relations to those unfortunate children deprived of a like precious heritage.

How precious such relations, when the boys, as they meet their superintendent on the grounds, or after chapel service, or at bed-time when he visits their cots, voluntarily express their purpose to be better boys, or confess this or that error of the day, and their penitence therefor! Such opportunities for good, angels themselves might almost covet. Let the superintendent, then, take courage. Let him keep the end in view amid his varied trials, assured that, if he embrace his opportunities with an earnest and Christian spirit, he shall hear the blessed testimony, "Inasmuch as ye have done it unto the least of these my brethren, ye have done it unto me."

EXTRACTS FROM SECTION PAPERS.

As the exigencies of space have crowded out of this volume the work of the section meetings, with the exception of a brief report of the Charity Organization section, the chairman of this section, with the consent of the editor, has omitted his address as chairman of the meeting, to permit of the publication of extracts from some of the papers read before the section. The following papers have been selected chiefly as bringing forward topics comparatively new to the discussions of the section.

C. W. Birtwell, *Chairman.*

STATE SUPERVISION OF CHILD-CARING AGENCIES.

BY HOMER FOLKS,

SECRETARY OF THE STATE CHARITIES AID ASSOCIATION OF NEW YORK.

[Extract from a paper read at a meeting of the section.]

The proposition that there should be some supervision over all institutions, societies, and officials that undertake the care of children is one which hardly requires argument before this audience. All of the arguments urged in favor of the establishment of State Boards of Charities apply here with equal force. The most evident necessity for supervision is to correct positive evils. . . . But, aside from the positive evils, there needs to be some means of making the experience of each available for many or all, somebody from whom any institution which proposes to establish a placing-out department, or something in the line of industrial training, can learn what other institutions have successfully undertaken such lines of work, and how it was done.

But, most important of all, there needs to be somebody who is thinking not only as to how to do the best for a given number of children, but about the tendency and development of child-caring work as a whole,—somebody who will sound the alarm if in excess of zeal we are doing violence to the natural relations of society, and interdependence of the members of the family, or to summon us to greater activity, if neglected childhood still goes uncared for.

But, if there is to be supervision over *all* child-caring agencies, it must be *State* supervision. The right of the State to exercise such supervision cannot be questioned. So far as public agencies are concerned, the rights and powers of counties, cities, towns, and villages, are fixed, and may be modified, by the State.

In respect to private agencies, the State has bestowed upon them the right to a corporate existence. They are the creatures of the State. Above these considerations is the maxim that the public safety is the highest law.

Lastly, the State owes it to its children to be sure that they are well taken care of. . . .

The first duty of a State toward its dependent children is to know where they are. For this reason it seems to me that every society, institution, and public official should report to the State concerning each child whom it receives into its charge, stating from whom and why it receives the child, what it does for him, and, finally, what it does with him. . . . It is one of the anomalies of child-caring work that, speaking broadly, nobody knows what becomes of the children.

So, too, the State, as the natural guardian of dependent children, should, it seems to me, visit and inspect at regular intervals all institutions and agencies in whose charge such children are placed. In several States the existing State Boards of Charities have authority to visit and inspect all such institutions. But in none, so far as I am aware, are all the institutions visited regularly. . . .

A large proportion of the children of the State are not living in institutions, but in families. It is unfortunately the case that in most systems of State supervision and inspection these children seem to be practically lost sight of, and to be regarded as being no longer the wards of the State. The abuses in child-caring work are, however, not limited to institutions; and those who have seen much of placing-out work as it is usually done will, I am sure, agree with me that there is fully as much need that the protecting care of the State should be extended to the children who are in families as to those who are in institutions.

The reports made by institutions, agencies, and public officers to the State should therefore include the names and addresses of persons with whom children are placed, with some statement of the terms of the agreement; and subsequently reports should be made, from time to time, as to the progress and condition of the children who are placed out, and changes of residence should be reported as faithfully as transfers from one institution to another. I would go still further, and insist that the State, through its representatives, should have authority to visit and should visit, in its discretion, all these children placed in families except possibly those placed by legal adoption. In proposing this, I am not unmindful of the delicacy of the relations that frequently exist between the foster-parent and the placing-out agency, and of the danger that too many cooks may spoil the broth. Undoubtedly there might be a few cases of real hardship from such a system of State visitation; but I am convinced that the benefits would far outweigh any evil effects. . . .

In regard to State institutions for children, perhaps the State agency for supervision should have the power of recommending to the legislature as to needful appropriations.

Concerning county, town, and municipal agencies for the care of children, I am of the opinion that the State should exercise large supervisory powers. As a rule, the work of these local agencies is of an inferior character. The contamination of petty politics, the narrow-mindedness of men who deal only with small affairs, and the impossibility of acquiring expert knowledge in the handling of a few cases, all these facts render the town, the county, and in most cases the city, an undesirable unit for performing child-caring services. I would recommend an exclusive State system for the public care of children in the newer States; and I believe that in the older States a State supervisory board should have large powers in compelling these local officers to perform their duties properly. As con-

cerns the internal management of county, town, and municipal institutions for children, this board should, in my opinion, be authorized to issue a formal order to the local officers, containing its recommendations as to the remedy for any existing abuses or defects, and that this order, if approved by a judge of the Supreme Court after a hearing before him, of which the local officers should be informed, and at which they might appear, should have all the force of law, and be capable of being enforced by adequate penalties.

As to children placed in families by such local officers, I am of the opinion that the State supervisory agency should have power to remove them in its discretion, and either to return them to the proper local authorities or to make suitable provision for them at the expense of the county, city, or town.

Concerning private corporations which care for children at public expense, if the institutions are receiving *State* funds, the admission and discharge of inmates so to be supported should be under the control of the State supervisory agency. . . . If the grants of public money are made by the counties, cities, and towns, it might seem that the admission and discharge of inmates should be controlled by county, city, or town officials, as the case may be. In practice, however, this system works badly. . . .

The recent constitutional convention of the State of New York made a radical departure by placing the ultimate control of all such expenditures by counties, cities, and towns in the hands of the State Board of Charities. The new provision has only been in force six months, but already valuable reforms have been effected.

Concerning institutions supported entirely at private expense the State supervisory board has always the immense power of curtailing their receipts by a public statement of their shortcomings and their failure to remedy them after due notice has been given. In addition to this, it should be given the power, now possessed by the State Board of Charities of New York, of instituting proceedings, through the attorney-general, for the annulment of the charter of any institution or agency which persistently refuses to do its work in a proper manner. The provision of the New York statutes that the consent of the State Board of Charities shall be secured prior to the incorporation of any institution having for its object the care of children seems to have worked well.

By what machinery shall this State supervision be exercised? Under present political conditions the best results will probably be secured by a staff of paid officials, working under the direction and control of an honorary board of not less than seven members, appointed by the governor, the term of one member expiring each year. As to whether there should be a board devoted exclusively to child-caring agencies, separate and distinct from the ordinary State Board of Charities, I should, so far as all the larger States are concerned, unhesitatingly say yes. The intimate acquaintance with the subject

which the performance of such duties presupposes seems to me to be all but incompatible with an equal familiarity with all the other divisions of the great field of charities and correction.

THE PROBLEMS OF CHILD-SAVING IN NEW YORK CITY.

BY CHARLES LORING BRACE,

SECRETARY OF THE CHILDREN'S AID SOCIETY, NEW YORK.

[Extract from a paper read at a meeting of the section.]

The sociological problems of New York are especially complex by reason of the ignorance and helplessness of the great numbers of emigrants from Europe who throng into certain quarters of our city. In the lower East Side district over 100,000 Russian and Polish Jews are crowded together. Here are the sweaters' shops, where the cheap clothing is made in the filthy rooms in which the people live. North of this district are first the Hungarian cloak-makers; and northward, along the east side of the city, are the great German and Bohemian colonies, the most respectable and law-abiding of all our foreign population. On the west side is the immense Italian colony; and north of that, along the west side are the Irish, and Irish-German-Americans.

It results that each ward presents different characteristics and different problems; and, as the numbers of these people increase, the struggle for life becomes more intense. To make the problem still more serious, we find that the breaking of the home ties with the mother country has a bad moral effect. The new and strange life about them and the removal from the social and religious safeguards which surround them at home weaken their moral and religious tone. They find the police less strict, the wealth about them far greater, and the boys, particularly the Jewish boys, are learning that it is possible to live by their wits. This is the danger before us, and this is the problem that all those at work among the poor and ignorant are facing.

Unfortunately for us, the public schools of the city do not meet this problem. To make this statement clear, let us consider the population of the East Side districts. It has been said that a certain acre near Essex and Stanton Streets, having 622 people living on it, is the most crowded place of any city in the world; but, on analyzing the census issued by the Board of Health, I find this maximum is nearly maintained for a whole square mile, including parts of six wards. In this square mile there are gathered together 350,000 people, mostly aliens. They live in 8,000 houses, of which 900 are

rear tenements, being 43 to each house, though very many tenements have more than double that number of people in them. In this square mile the enumeration of children under five years of age is 53,000. From the census returns giving the number of children of school age — that is, from five to fourteen years inclusive — I have estimated the number in this square mile at 63,000. Of these it is safe to say that 50,000 should be in the primary schools; but, unhappily for them and to the shame of New York, there are in this whole square mile but 27,000 sittings in the primary schools, so that there are some 20,000 children more than can be received in the schools of this district.

The welfare of the city depends on the training of the children. It is not only the elementary education which is needed. Our authorities should know that these children require individual attention, encouragement, and personal interest. Instead of this, a few days' absence, a little carelessness, and the child loses its seat in the crowded class-room, no further thought is given it; for what can the truant agent do when there are a hundred children ready for every vacant seat? The street, the sweat-shop, the cheap workshop, is its school henceforth. Often, as a result of this neglect, the poor child is brought before the justice for vagrancy and committed to an institution where, for a couple of years, it is herded indiscriminately with all the bad boys or girls of the city at the city's cost. An endless chain of misfortune and expense, easily obviated, if our city would but wake up to its duties. . . .

DESERTION BY PARENTS.

BY REV. E. P. SAVAGE,

SUPERINTENDENT OF THE CHILDREN'S HOME SOCIETY OF MINNESOTA.

[Extract from a paper read at a meeting of the section.]

Out of about six hundred children that had come into the charge of the Children's Home Society of Minnesota, in less than five years, I found that nearly one-third of them had been deserted by one or both parents. I found also that, while this crime was recognized by the law of Minnesota, yet not a single instance of any punishment whatever had come under my notice. About nine-tenths of the desertions were by fathers. Inquiry revealed the fact that our experience in Minnesota was by no means exceptional, and that the evil of the desertion of children by their parents, and especially of illegitimate children and their mothers by the father of the child, was wide-spread.

I sent a list of questions to many persons and institutions in every

State and Territory and in Canada. Few of the institutions replying had kept records bearing upon this subject. But there was a universal recognition of the wide prevalence of the evil. Replies have come from thirty States and from Canada.

One question was, In how many cases was an effort made to secure the return of the father or to secure his arrest and compel him to support his child? Replies received from Connecticut, Minnesota, Michigan, and New York, report a few attempts, almost invariably abortive. Replies from Ohio, Illinois, Massachusetts, and Rhode Island, report a much larger number, the proceedings being under laws against non-support. But the large majority of the replies from the States indicate that no such attempt had been made.

Another question was, Do the laws of your State recognize the crime, and do they attach any penalty to it? Replies from thirteen States and Canada indicated that it was treated as a crime,— Connecticut, Delaware, Illinois, Idaho, Kansas, Michigan, Minnesota, North Carolina, New York, Ohio, Rhode Island, West Virginia, and Wisconsin. Iowa reports it as dealt with only as a civil liability. Massachusetts reports "no law for punishing a man for deserting his family, but a law against non-support, under which a man may be fined $20 or imprisoned for not more than six months." Nine States and the District of Columbia report no such law,— Arkansas, California, Colorado, Indiana, Nebraska, New Mexico, Texas, Utah, Virginia. Mr. H. W. Lewis, superintendent of the Board of Children's Guardians of Washington, D.C., reports, "Lack of any recognition of bastardy, adultery, and desertion of children as crimes in the District."

Some of the laws worthy of note are: The law of Illinois enacted in 1893, making abandonment or non-support of wife or child a misdemeanor punishable by a fine of not less than $100 nor more than $500, or imprisonment not less than one month nor more than twelve months, or by both fine and imprisonment. Under this law the attorney of Cook County (Chicago) reports 150 cases in action or pending. A commendable feature of the Wisconsin law is that which authorizes supervisors to prosecute. Reports from many of the States indicate that the law is made inoperative by the requirement that the complaint shall be made by the wife or mother, which she often refuses to do.

Ohio reports a most effective law. It is commonly known as the "truant father" law, and was enacted in 1890. It is more specifically a law against non-support, and makes it a misdemeanor punishable by imprisonment at hard labor from three to twelve months; but it provides that, if after conviction, and before sentence, the guilty party files a bond in the penal sum of $1,000 for support of the child, the court may suspend sentence. Under this law the Humane Society of Cincinnati through its efficient superintendent, Mr.

James Smith, collected in 1894, from 539 truant fathers, $11,591, which has been paid the mothers and guardians. This is pre-eminently the most gratifying report that has come from any State. It is a striking illustration of what may be accomplished under an effective law by an energetic and persistent attempt to enforce it.

A further question was, How does the law work? The answer from Connecticut was, "No instance of its working has come under my observation." From Delaware, "Poorly: not attended to." Kansas, "Almost a failure." Michigan, "Not well." This is the purport of all the replies received.

The question was asked, Would you suggest any change in the law? Every reply favored an increase of the penalty. Several recommended that desertion of children be made a felony. Mr. Kelso, of Canada, Mr. Thurber, of Rhode Island, Mr. Birtwell, of Massachusetts, proposed that the offence be made extraditable. The favorite plan of the majority, as stated by Miss J. C. Lathrop, of Illinois, was, "Let the man be placed in jail, and compelled to work, and the value of his labor applied to the support of his family." The plan here suggested was advocated in replies from Delaware, Illinois, Minnesota, Michigan, Ohio, Texas, and Wisconsin. In Toledo, Ohio, this law is in force, the workhouse board paying forty cents a day to the family of the prisoner. A response from Delaware recommended that there should be national legislation upon the matter.

As to an adequate agency through which a mother, without money, deserted by the father of her child, can secure any redress, a reply from Michigan designates the Associated Charities and the police. Replies from Massachusetts, New York, Ohio, and Connecticut mention the humane societies. Miss J. C. Lathrop, of Illinois, mentions, besides the county attorney, two private agencies, the Bureau of Justice and the Women's and Children's Protective Agency; but eighteen replies from as many States answer, "We have none."

In regard to the chief hindrances to bringing the guilty parties to justice, Mr. H. C. Whittlesey, of Connecticut, replies, "Lack of local and State appropriation of funds." Similarly from California, "The expense." From Michigan, "The poverty of the mother." Many reply, "Lack of proper legislation." From Minnesota, "Lack of adequate agency to follow and punish the offender." Many replies indicate a similar thought. Mr. Birtwell, of Massachusetts, "The unwillingness of the mother to testify"; and replies from Delaware, Michigan, Ohio, and Wisconsin, mention the same thing. "Escape of the guilty party beyond the jurisdiction of the court," is a difficulty frequently assigned. While California assigns this reason, in Minnesota we find that the truant fathers of our section escape to California and other distant points.

X.

Juvenile Reformation.

THE INFLUENCE OF CHILDREN IN THEIR HOMES AFTER INSTITUTION LIFE.

BY F. H. NIBECKER,

SUPERINTENDENT PENNSYLVANIA HOUSE OF REFUGE.

The question to which I am about to invite your thoughts for perhaps twenty minutes or half an hour is, "What may be legitimately expected to be the influence of boys and girls, who have been trained in institutions for reformation, upon their homes, when they return to them after a sufficient period spent there to change their habits?"

I am perfectly frank in saying I am not going to declare what the influence is with anything like catagorical certainty, because I do not believe that a sufficiently wide range of observations has been made to be of any value. Of course, individual cases are continually coming to our notice; but it is not fair to draw general conclusions from individual cases. If we should do so, those who wish to present an optimistic view on the subject would declare that the influence of children returned from reformatory institutions is omnipotent in redeeming the homes to which they return, because such and such a boy, after he returned to his home, completely revolutionized the habits of the family by the influence which he exerted. On the contrary, the pessimist would declare that these children have no influence whatever, because such and such a boy, after he went to his home, did not elevate that home, but by vicious habits dropped even to a lower stage of degradation than the members of the family already occupied. Of course, neither of these conclusions is justifiable from the observation of a single case; and I, therefore, simply ask what we may expect rather than what we have accomplished.

Too often it is a fact that the children who come under the care of institutions intended for juvenile delinquents have come from homes that are in no sense ideal and in no degree calculated to develop in their juvenile occupants those characteristics which are most desirable in children, and are the roots from which will spring good citizenship and ambitious manhood. It is a lamentable fact that in a very large number of cases, even proportionately considered, the home, which is the basis of American society and its unit, is not what we should like to have it, and such that it cannot, by any possible stretch of imagination, be considered as desirable as a foundation for a body politic.

From actual statistics and observation of seven hundred and thirty cases we are able to say positively that a large majority of the homes from which our children come are poverty-stricken. Of course, this may not be the fact for every day in the year; but it is the chronic condition in which the family lives, and from which it is unable entirely to raise itself for any period of considerable length. I look upon the families from which our children come as of five distinct kinds: —

The first are those who are poverty-stricken by inheritance. Neither the parents themselves nor their progenitors have, so far as observation can go, ever known anything but poverty. They have been contented to remain in poverty because of the shiftlessness of their characters, the meagreness of their wants, and the absence of any mental activity that would stir them to attain any other position than that which is lowly and least self-dependent. These people are degraded, of a low physical type, low in moral type, and very far below the ordinary calibre in mental capacity, Children coming from such homes, of course, must not be expected to have any of the ordinary characteristics of children who are reared under different circumstances. They will show the low organization of their parents and also the continual drift of their own natures to even greater degradation, which is the natural tendency of those who are not spurred by ambition to lift themselves out of any unfortunate position in which they may find themselves. Of course, of all families this class is the most hopeless. Children from this class may not always be hopeless nor even discouraging, but for the family itself it seems that there must be some wonderful effort in order to shake them out of their degraded condition.

The second class of families is also poverty-stricken, but it is poverty-stricken because of misfortune and in spite of any effort those in the family may put forth to overcome the condition. This class, when first falling under the cloud of misfortune, make some effort to better themselves; but, possessing only ordinary parts, they finally yield to circumstances, and eventually come to live in comparative comfort in the miserable, inadequate surroundings to which they have been forced. Children coming from such a source are, of course, very hopeful themselves; and there is vastly greater hope for such families being again restored to something like a condition of comfort and self-respect.

There usually still remains in such a family in the parents some slight connection with those who are in better circumstances and some slight memory of the joys and comforts, to say nothing of the refinements, that come with a liberal supply of the necessaries of life, even when they are not supplemented by its luxuries.

The third class of families is also poverty-stricken, but because of the loss of bread-winning capacity, and still possessing unusual ability to combat misfortune, they fight against all the degrading influences of want and all the depressing associations of want into which, unfortunately, want throws them; and so, while perhaps having no more with which to do than some others, they yet make a better show in the care of their families and in the care of themselves, being neater, more tidy, more cleanly, and showing a little more of refinement in the selection of their diet and its preparation. These are certainly families who are only held within the borders of the densely unfortunate by the strong hand of circumstances which they are unable to successfully overcome, although they are continually combating it; and children from such sources are those who are sometimes like bent bows,— only waiting for the cord to be released to fly into perfect uprightness and straightness of character, and to show their strength by bearing also with them those who have been their natural care-takers and protectors. This last class of families is the only economical class among the poverty-stricken, for it has long been well understood that the least economical of all people in the world are those who are poorest. They care the least for that which they have and provide the least providently for that which is to come. They are the most degraded in circumstances, if not in character.

The fourth class of families touches upon entirely different causes, although with that which is the true ground of their classification poverty is usually associated; and that ground is viciousness, ungodliness, dishonesty, intemperance. There is here not only the physical degradation that comes to the first class of poverty-stricken almost with their birth, and to the second class after certain years of hardship and suffering, but there is also the greater moral and spiritual degradation which seeks only its own gratification by whatever means is possible; and the more horrid and repulsive is this thought when we consider how absolutely debased and unholy is the self that seeks to be gratified. There may be some religion in the family, with a pretence of sometimes attending some church; but there is no rule or recognition of any care of a beneficent and wise-ruling God in the household. There is no recognition of the rights of property of others except the fear that a uniformed guardian of the peace may discover them in the act of appropriating, and cause them to reap the punishment of crime against law, and there is no dignity of character or person that would indicate to them the necessity of self-respect and the keeping of absolute control of their bodies so that they might not be degraded in the eyes of others; but they in their indulgence in intoxicating drinks, as in all other things, know no bounds save their ability to procure that which they desire, either by hard work, dishonest practices, or actual theft.

The fifth class of families, from which children find their way into institutions of the kind with which we are dealing, are families in fair circumstances, who lack ambition for and pride in their children. They allow them to become careless with reference to obedience to their own commands and wishes. They allow them to become careless with reference to their personal appearance and personal habits; and they are naturally led through such carelessness to associate with others, who appear at least to be in the same class with themselves because of this carelessness in habit, and the result, of course, is that they become more and more unruly, appropriating from their less well-situated friends all that is vicious and degraded in their habits of thought and action, until they themselves become like their companions. Finally, they are declared to be vicious, unmanageable, incorrigible, and eventually they are taken in actual crime against the law of the Commonwealth.

I have thus far, in the briefest and boldest manner, considered

what is the character of the homes from which our children come. Now, I wish to consider in the same manner what are the reasons why children become our wards. I do not mean simply to consider that the fact of the homes being what they are is the reason why children come to us, but what are the foundation causes in character that lead children to such a life that it becomes necessary for them to be placed under the care and guardianship of institutions for juvenile delinquents.

I place first among these causes carelessness about the rights of others, absolute absence of any recognition of those duties that devolve upon all who are associated in large numbers or in small places. A great many of the rights of men, which would be theirs without a question did they live alone or in a state of society where only natural conditions existed, must be given up, in order to live in closely settled communities and under the artificial conditions of modern civilization. This absence of regard for the rights that belong to others comes from the child being undisciplined in his home surroundings, not being taught anything like due respect and regard for his elders or superiors, and being allowed to be defiant in his disregard of all of these things because he has never been shown that disobedience and disregard of the duties of a child are sure to be followed by some kind of retribution, whether it be corporal punishment or some other punishment that may mean as much or more to him, according as his sensibilities are great in the flesh or in the mind. These children are what are commonly called "hoodlums." They annoy those who dwell in their neighborhood. They go about in large numbers, like miniature mobs, preying upon society in one way or another, defying any reproof, and making life miserable for the time being to those who come in contact with them. Upon the street they expect the whole world to turn aside for them and their sports and play, no matter how vicious these may be in character and no matter how much these may infringe upon the common rights of all citizens to the possession of the public highways.

Second in range of importance, or at least, in range of influence upon its numbers, is the lack of moral distinctions. They do not recognize that there is such a thing as abstract right and wrong. Consequently, being entirely devoid of moral sense, they are not influenced by it in their actions. They do that which is wrong

because it is a pleasure to do it, or because it is easier to do it, or they do that which is right for the same reasons, making no distinction whatever between the two. I do not mean now to speak of the lack of strength to resist temptation, but of the lack of moral distinction which makes the choice between right and wrong voluntary, because one thing is right and another thing is wrong. I am well aware that this is a condition of mind that is found in a vast number of children, and perhaps in the beginning in all children; but in the class of which I am speaking there has never been the beginning of an education which shall turn from this natural condition of mind into the other condition of mind which is conformable with the moral science and religious sentiment and statutory law of the society in which they live.

The third cause or reason is a lack of ambition to become something worthy. There are many children in the world who lack ambition to become something worthy because of an absolute absence of any knowledge on their part of what there is that is worthy, to which they may attain. They do not know anything about the possibilities of life. They do not understand anything about the pleasures of life outside of those pleasures that come to them in their very narrow and unfortunate sphere. They do not even know the pleasures of good food and good clothes, clean beds and clean dishes. In fact, they know nothing about those decencies in life which are as essential to those of a better class as free air is to breath, and we might add that the class of which I am speaking hardly know what it is to breathe pure air. Now, of course, if a child does not know what there is ahead of him in life, and that a certain condition of life carries with it certain pleasures and certain advantages, he can never by any possibility be ambitious to attain to such a condition in life. He may see men and women passing along the street who are as much better cared for, as he thinks, than he is as the horses in the large stable adjacent to his home are better cared for than those in the little shanty in his alley that are owned by some huckster or ash-man. He may see in the market things that look very tempting and are clean and apparently very good, and which are certainly very different from those which he three times a day finds at home upon a soiled, uncovered table in the kitchen where they have been prepared; but seeing these things does not in any way interpret to him what they mean to those who

possess them, and he does not know the life that is possible, because it has never been brought to his notice in a way to make it actual. Therefore, he has no ambition to attain it, nor will ever know the means that are necessary to realize it.

The fourth reason is lack of stamina, because he has never had the discipline of applying himself to any kind of thing under the sun. It is true the poor little thing may have had sometimes to work very hard at the pile of wood that has been gathered along the street and deposited at his own door by himself and younger and elder brothers and sisters. It is true he may sometimes have been obliged to walk a very long way to gather coal where it has been dropped from passing cars, or he may have been obliged to tug with all his might at a large laundry bundle that he has taken from his mother's wash-tub to some more prosperous neighbor; but these are only spasmodic efforts. He has never been obliged to school himself at a certain hour of the day to begin a certain thing, and to continue in the same direction for hours, days, weeks, and perhaps months. He has never been obliged to give close thought and attention to work at school for a certain number of hours consecutively each day for a certain number of weeks and months in each year. He absolutely lacks anything like discipline in real application. He may exert himself as much physically in some wild or rude sport as he would in some useful labor, but that is not the kind of discipline: play is not work. As a result of this lack of early discipline, he has no power to resist temptation. He has no desire to provide for his wants by earnest, persistent effort; and whatever will seem to him easier and more in the line of play than that which he would be required to do to earn his living he will do. He will tramp, he will associate with the dissolute and aimless, and consider that he is getting his living in a much easier way than those who are working each day in the mill or shop or upon the farm; and, inasmuch as he likewise belongs to class No. 3, who are without ambition because he knows very little about what he might attain if he did exert himself, he will be perfectly contented.

The fifth reason is covetousness. I do not look upon this in our children with the same holy and unmixed horror with which some people look upon it; nor do I consider it equivalent to an anathema to say that a child has stolen or to know that he has stolen many times, either. This child may have some knowledge of the classes

that are above him, the things that they enjoy, and the possibilities that lie open to them, and yet so deep may be the dark pall of difficulty that hangs around him, like midnight darkness, that he has no hope of ever attaining to these things or even ever approaching to them. But he desires them just the same, or as much of them as he can possibly attain; and, so desiring, he steals to gratify this desire. Now, all thieves are not of this kind. Neither are all children who steal of this kind. Some steal for very miserable and inadequate reasons, and some steal to attain very miserable and reprehensible ends; but it comes in all cases from this desire to possess that which belongs to a lot other than their own. If they were able often to obtain the trifles that they steal, they certainly would not steal them; and it is only because they are too poor or too unambitious or too ignorant or too little disciplined in self-control that they steal at all.

Of course, this is a very inadequate and imperfect classification of the causes that bring children under the care of the management of institutions for reform; but I believe that under one of these heads will be found the real cause for any other heading or classification that may be suggested as a reason why children are brought under the eyes of the law as incorrigible or criminal.

You will therefore see very plainly that I look upon it as a fact indisputable that the great cause of the downfall of children — the reason why they are necessarily placed in the hands of the State to be properly disciplined and properly directed, and why even in those hands they do not always turn out to be models of propriety and ornaments to society — is poverty and the influence exerted over those who are not poor by the offspring of the poor. Now, this may seem to be a very unpleasant thing to say, and may suggest very grave problems in society; but, if you will take statistics like the following, made up from individual visitation and examination of cases in an institution as representative as any in the world, I cannot see how you can but agree with what I have said.

Upon the day when these statistics were made out there were 730 boys in the House of Refuge at Glen Mills. Of these 193 were without homes or protectors, 258 had only poor apologies for homes or their parents were so intemperate as to make it impossible for them to supply themselves with drink and their children with bread, 172 had parents who were only day laborers, at best earning

a very scant living for their families, thus making 623 boys out of 730 whom we may very well class as being absolutely poor or poverty-stricken. Of the 107 remaining, 76 could not afford to pay as much as $1.00 a week for the support of their children, 22 more might possibly, by exercising due care in their expenditures, be able to pay $1.00 a week, making 96 of the remaining 107 who could not possibly adequately support their children, even when that support was furnished in as cheap a way as possible,— as where large numbers are cared for together, and so everything purchased at the lowest possible price. It was considered probable that the remaining 9 boys had parents who were able to pay for their living a sum of $2.00 or $3.00 a week, which would be full support for them under the circumstances.

Here, I believe, you have a demonstration, and not merely a presentation of a theory, and I believe the demonstration carries out what I have said with regard to poverty being the chief cause for juvenile delinquency. For, even where the parent or parents may be well disposed, the grinding necessities of their condition compel neglect for the greater part of the day that makes it impossible to adequately direct the young lives and safely guard the young hearts.

There will, no doubt, be considerable surprise felt that nothing has been said concerning the absence of religious teaching in the early life of these children. It has not been deemed necessary to specify this cause, because, if moral distinction had been deeply marked in their minds, it would have made no difference whatever whether they had any pronounced religious convictions or not; for no child is sent to an institution or taken from its parents because of its belief or lack of belief, but only because its best good is in danger from the absence of morality in itself and its instructors. And, therefore, I deem it unnecessary to say anything whatever concerning the presence or absence of religion in the minds and hearts and lives of those who become wards of child-saving effort.

Now, having considered the family from which the children come, and the character of the children themselves when they do come, it would seem reasonable to consider the influence under which these children are placed when they come into institutions for their betterment. The fact of the institutions being large in the first place brings them into close contact with many others, whose interests may be the same or may be at variance with theirs, and whose inclinations

may be alike or may be at variance with theirs, whose tastes may run in similar directions or in counter-currents, and whose dispositions may be equally pleasant or violently opposed to one another; and yet they are obliged to live in this society. They must get on with their fellows in a peaceable way. They must not infringe upon the rights of their neighbors any more than their own rights are infringed upon. Their individualism must not be so obtrusive as to make it obnoxious to all about them; and they must come to consider themselves as one of many as regards a great many things, as every citizen of the State must consider himself before he takes his proper place in society.

Yet there is the continual although unobtrusive instruction in moral distinction. Every act of his life during the day is squared to some moral standard. Concerning every privilege that is granted or everything that is forbidden there is a continual appeal to moral law, so as to justify the act for the child's good. Of course, this moral instruction is not so baldly evident as I have made it appear in this brief statement; but it is nevertheless given, and from time to time the proper place of moral influence is well defined for the benefit of the child.

Thus we have two of the causes of boys being restrained of their liberty removed by these two kinds of instruction; namely, disregard of the rights of others and the absence of moral sense.

Third, the world's possibilities for every man according to his ability are placed prominently before the minds of the young in all properly conducted institutions for children. They are all taught that they may occupy any kind of a position and attain to any kind of eminence for which they are prepared, and that every man fills the place for which he has fitted himself. If there is no other better fitted to fill the position than the one of whom we are speaking, he is sure to have it; and, if there are others who are better fitted to fill it than he, it is entirely proper that they should fill it, and not he. Thus their relationship to work, both with work that benefits the mind and improves its calibre and strengthens its grasp of thought and the work which makes skilled the hand and gives power to manipulate the material things of the world, are exemplified continually. The good reading that is furnished and the association of those in charge of them in a familiar and yet a respectful way, who are naturally a little above them in position, lead them to understand the differences that are commonly held to exist between not only actions

that are absolutely good and absolutely bad, but between actions that are entirely proper and those that are entirely improper, although possessing no absolute moral character; for we are accustomed to find, the more refined and cultured children are in their conduct, and the more they recognize their duty to the conventions of life, the less likely they are to become involved in wickedness and absolute sin, so that living in a home that is cleanly and even attractively furnished, partaking of their meals in a civilized way, they being decently served, and being required to show a correct deportment to one another, and to those who are superior to them or with whom they may come in contact, is all an education in morality.

Fourth, there is necessarily in an institution that is conducted upon modern lines, and according to the present development of science, a great deal of training and drill in self-control. The necessary regulations of the institutions themselves furnish a very large field for the exercise of this kind of discipline; the strict rules by which children are taught to be subject rather than sovereign, and the very many rules that are rules only of principle, with the widest latitude of application that the pupil himself is required to make; and the military training which is now so common, which instils natural dignity of physical carriage and also natural dignity of feeling in the boy,— all tend to make it possible for the pupil to control his own actions, and, even in the face of allurements and temptation, to be able to follow that which he knows to be the line of duty. Then in addition to these general methods of discipline there is the constant employment either at some useful, instructive kind of work or, when not so employed, in the regular school grades, improving the mind. This kind of employment differs entirely from the haphazard kind of work to which the child has been accustomed, and, being regular and with a definite object in view and consecutive in order, makes what may be called real work, and so fits the boy or girl for application in real life. Those who have been most completely and continuously engaged in useful occupation are those who have the most perfect control of themselves, and are able to direct their actions and their tempers.

Fifth, there is another line of instruction that is made very prominent in an institution that conforms to philosophical laws in the laying out of its work; and that is instruction which teaches the pupil that whatever is gained is gained by exertion, and whatever is enjoyed

is the result of one's own labor. In all kinds of work about an institution and in its trade schools there may be such an apportionment of labor, and such results for a certain degree of proficiency and a certain amount of application as will show to the pupil that the labor he has done is not lost, but that he is reaping a reward, not only of greater proficiency, but also in certain perquisites that come to him as a direct result of his success in labor.

This teaches children that there are things to be gained by work, and that work itself gives them those things that are desired. If a boy who is working in the shop and in the schools finds that the time of his discharge, together with all the privileges that he enjoys during his time in the institution, are dependent upon the labor that he does, he will be shown conclusively how much is possible to him by proper application. He will learn that he can gain those things which he desires by personal effort rather than by breaking the law, and so it will be possible in a certain degree, which I believe to be a very large degree, to overcome the coveting of the results of another's labor; for, if a child recognizes that what he has belongs to him because of what he has done, and he remembers how much it means to gain any end by labor, he will be less liable to deprive another of the results of his labor, any more than he would wish to be deprived of the results of his own.

Sixth, there is moral and religious instruction that keeps continually before the child the necessity of recognizing the existence of a higher power, which teaches that the welfare of all mankind must be considered, and which requires the attainment of the highest possible good of each individual; that disobedience is sure to bring upon the person so disobeying retribution of some kind, present or future, just as the violation of any law is sure to result in loss. This instruction, of course, is without sectarian bias, and not doctrinal in character, being simply a general outline of man's duty to God and his fellows.

Now, what may we expect to be the result upon those who come from such sources as we have described, and who remain under such influence for a longer or shorter period, and return again to the same influence from which they first came? Is it possible to expect that a child will be a potent factor in determining the home life of a family after he returns to it? Is it possible that the new wants that have been called to life in his being will exercise so strong an influence

over him that he may in some degree and to some extent bring about a different standard for the whole family? Can he, spurred on by his own new necessities, instil into the rest of the family a sufficient feeling of the importance of these things to excite new energy in the direction of attaining a better standard of life? These are important questions; and, in asking these questions, we have indicated the source from which we should expect the good influence to arise.

It is not easy for one who has been accustomed for many months to live in comfort, and to being surrounded with something like refinement, and to having continually the experience of considerate treatment, to return to a life in which all these things are absent. When he does return to these surroundings, he goes from the institution well clad, in a condition of health that has been attained through the regularity of his life, and with abundance of physical energy with which to combat the evil influences under which he may be cast. His first effort, of course, will be to try to have as good things as he had at the institution; and there is a ground for expecting that the parents will in every way second his effort. We know that in humble circumstances in life parents are very proud of any advance that their children may make beyond the class in which they have always lived, and in nearly all cases they will make the most self-sacrificing efforts to give to their offspring better education and better surroundings and to furnish them with better clothes than they themselves have ever enjoyed. Now, there may not have been in the children themselves, up to the time of their coming to the institution, any ambition in any of these directions; but, when they return from it, there is certain to be such an ambition, and a very strong desire to attain these ends. May we not expect that the parents will second that ambition and desire, and, in order to make their homes comfortable and acceptable to those who have returned to them, endeavor to improve their surroundings in every way, and, in order to do this, be more faithful in labor and more persistent in their efforts to keep continual employment, and to advance in the same, so that the means of attaining these ends may be more ample than they would otherwise be? The child himself can contribute in a large degree to the attainment of these ends. In the first place his own earnings will be no insignificant factor in the problem. In the second place his own knowledge of the care of the house and its surroundings, the service of the meals, and the preservation of his own cloth-

ing will be to those at home, and who have never had any instruction in these things, quite an education. We have seen this effect, and the most earnest and persistent efforts on the part of parents to bring up the standard of their homes to that of their children, who have by some means gained greater advantages in these directions than ever attained before after leaving the home temporarily. If such an effort is made, it immediately places the family upon a new plane of respectability, and brings a new circle of associates, and with that circle of associates new strength to continue the improvement that has been begun.

This is the answer to our question, "What may we expect of the influence of boys and girls, who have been trained in reformatory institutions, upon their homes when they return to them?" I would say that we may reasonably expect an improvement in all directions,— an elevation of the standard of living and a refinement of the general conduct of every-day life, which is the first lesson, and perhaps the most important one, leading to an ultimate emancipation of the family from its long life of degradation and poverty. If this expectation may be realized, it is certain that the beneficent influence of these institutions cannot be measured simply by the proportion of boys or girls they reform, but there must be added to this element the general uplifting of society, in that part of it which most needs help from the other half of the world, and which is itself the greatest menace to the permanent and happy existence of those who are well-to-do, and have by continued effort brought within the range of their enjoyments all that God intended man should have in the world.

REMEDIAL WORK IN BEHALF OF OUR YOUTH.

BY REV. MALCOLM M. G. DANA, D.D., OF NEW YORK.

I have come to believe, as the result of both observation and study, that the uncrowned kings and queens of this world are those who with resistless faith or radiant hope are engaged in this kind of work. I think it may be said of them, in the words in which Dante described Beatrice, that "God seems in their countenances to rejoice." The hopeful tone which has so largely pervaded the papers and discussions of this Conference surely attests, Mr. President, the influence of your own suggestion to all who were formally to have a part in the proceedings to present as far as possible what in outlook would be promiseful and practically helpful. The contagion of your own buoyant faith and larger hope we all have caught. Even that Nestor among the venerated teachers of this renowned university, whose face wears on it the sheen of the Master's glory, though unable to meet with us regularly, has felt, as he admitted, the enthusiasm for humanity which lends, after all, a sort of charm to the utterances of saints and seers, who have come up to this symposium of charity from the various fields wherein they toil.

What a procession of appealing and needy persons has passed before us as we have sat together in uplifting conference! What a great family has humanity seemed to be, with the lights and shadows of altering fortune and experience playing over it! How much sweeter and larger the sympathy of our day, which has created the diversified charities federated in this Conference! What a time in which to live! for are we not living in the full radiance of man's apocalypse, when his values have become the burdens of our poetry, the goal of our legislation, the key to our philosophy of history, and the inspiration to all our best social enthusiasms? Then, too, what progress we note, especially since that yawning chasm hitherto dividing into hostile classes the rich and poor has been crossed, and the dwellers in the avenue have come down to live in the once feared and neglected slum, so as to be near their brethren and share their lot, become their friends and enter into

neighborly relations with them! and, since thus we have come to know how "the other half lives," what a new estimate we have formed of that life! It is not all drear poverty nor misery nor sin. It is not all coarseness and dirt and despair. Nay, we have discovered heroisms and kindlinesses and self-denials and mutualities of brave service, bits of beauty, exhibits of taste, revelations of outreaching for the best, which make us ashamed that for so long we knew so little of our fellow-mortals dwelling only a square or two from our own spacious and comfort-filled homes. We have begun, too, on the work of correcting our view of those whom we have most wronged by our *laissez-faire* doctrine. There was not a little pathos in the poor woman's quaint protest against the old form of almsgiving when she exclaimed, "Oh, give us no more things: give us folks." It was hunger for friendship and the secret strength that a cheery visitor brings. Misunderstandings and aloofness have kept us from the ministries we might have rendered, and which would have been so helpful to the discouraged and overburdened. My inquiry is about our youth, in whose welfare there is now a prophetic renaissance of interest. I started in my study of this theme with the purpose of discovering what I could as to the antecedent conditions of juvenile delinquents, because such must challenge our chief concern. It is the evolution of the young offender that requires investigation, in order wisely to do for him; or, better still, it is the knowledge of his origin and early conditions which will inspire the preventive work which is demanding fresh emphasis and earnest prosecution.

Studying reformatory methods and devising reformatory institutions has largely absorbed penologists, and now there is a hopeful sign in the awakened interest to get at the causes of crime.

We have, morever, such abundant data gathered from the records of penal institutions and from the careful investigation of individual cases that we are able with a good deal of accuracy not only to classify criminals, but to get at the causes of their abnormal and, to society, harmful lives. If some crime is incurable, that is important; for that fact ought largely to control in the treatment of those addicted to that phase. The French school of criminology claims that the greater part of crime arises from social conditions, and hence is amenable to reformation. Beecher says that "defect of intelligence, poverty, and want of education are the three great

factors in crime." Major McClaughry, for years chief of the Chicago police, considers criminal parentage and associations and parental neglect of children as the primary causes producing the criminal class. And Dr. Olive Ferona, author of a work, "Habitual Criminality," asserts that three-fourths of those who enter prison have been led into a life of crime from the neglect of education. We pride ourselves upon our free school system; yet I have seen the estimate that only six out of every sixteen of the children of the United States are at school every day in the educational year. Four of the remaining ten go only occasionally, and the other six grow up in practical ignorance. This state of things in this country of free schools will give us, if uncorrected, a generation of blockheads or criminals. Then, too, it is the very young children whom we have hitherto overlooked. Uncared for at home, not yet arrived at school age, they have been suffered to grow up into bad habits, and acquire criminal tendencies. The first teacher to impress this strangely neglected class is environment. Their first years are spent amid circumstances that almost predestine to crime; and hence the awakened public attention to their needs is investing with immense importance the attempt to graft kindergartens on our free school system. It is beginning to be seen and felt that a fatal mistake has been made in omitting to do for those of comparatively tender years. Too young to be admitted to the public schools, these children have been left to the demoralizing influence of street life, with its baleful associations, and thus acquire a bias toward a vicious or criminal life before society has made a single effort to guard and train them in the beginnings of right living. Weighty were the words of Richard Watson Gilder, who, in speaking of the importance of doing for the children under school age in New York, said, "Plant a free kindergarten in any quarter of this overcrowded metropolis, and you have begun then and there the work of making better lives, better homes, better citizens, and a better city."

The characteristics of young criminals, those who have made a study of juvenile delinquents, report finding a number of anomalies. The morbid physical characters are 69 per cent. or double those without any moral anomaly. In the cases of certain kinds of delinquents physical anomalies range as high as 72 to 83 per cent. One fact, which investigation confirms, is the number of anomalies among children which disappear through education. Conditions

producing juvenile delinquency have been divided into two fundamental ones: (1) conditions residing within the personality; and (2) conditions residing outside in the environment.

In England returns show 84 boys in prison under twenty-one to every 16 girls; in reformatories, 85 boys to every 15 girls; in industrial schools, 79 boys to every 21 girls.

In the latter schools more than one-half the inmates are illegitimate, or have one or both parents dead, or are offspring of parents who have deserted them. As showing the degenerate condition of parents, Morrison cites the fact that between 1887 and 1891 no less than 39 in every 100 of the inmates of English and Scotch industrial schools had lost one parent.

The parental condition of 50 per cent. of juvenile criminals is abnormal.

One young offender in every two has only one or no parents, or is illegitimate, or was deserted, or is of criminal parentage. Deserted children form 6 per cent. of reformatory and industrial school population. Of 50 per cent. of juvenile offenders living with parents at the time of their first offence, 15 per cent. had parents not fitted to be intrusted with their education. The same authority claims that it is better to lose both parents than one, because then they are taken in charge by some institution or by the authorities. The same report is made as to the homes from which these delinquents come that we make in this country. Only in 6 per cent. of cases visited by the agent of the Home Department, England, were the homes found morally fit to live in; and in Manchester 68 per cent. of the parents of juvenile delinquents were known to be disreputable.

Our statistics as to the antecedent conditions and relations of the inmates of industrial and reformatory schools have not been as well tabulated as those in Great Britain, so that we cannot as yet report the exact percentage of orphans or half-orphans, nor from what sort of homes they come. But probably the data obtainable from New York institutions may represent pretty nearly the average of most other States.

In the House of Refuge in 1894 there were 531 boys, 85 girls; total, 616. 78 per cent. were from tenements and shanties, 67 per cent. were from comfortable homes, 33 per cent. were from uncomfortable homes or homeless, 137 were without one parent.

In the New York juvenile asylum there were in 1894 482 boys, 117 girls; total, 599. 269 had but one parent living.

In the State Industrial School, Rochester, for 1893 there were 642 boys, 113 girls; total, 785. 145 had lost one or both parents.

In the New York Catholic Protectorate there were in 1892 3,123 inmates. 1,947 had lost one or both parents.

Returns, so far as we have them, indicate that the majority of the parents of these juvenile offenders are not intemperate, though in the larger number of instances the environment is unfavorable. Quite generally is it true: —

1. The intellectual capacity of these delinquents is of a feeble order. They may be ferocious in certain particulars, but mentally they are not strong.

2. Morally, most of them show obtuseness. Their sense of right and wrong is undeveloped.

3. They have also a feebleness of will and character, partly the product of heredity and partly the result of the lack of education.

4. Physically, they show constitutional defects and infirmities. The loss of one or both parents in such a large proportion of cases indicates descent from an enfeebled and decadent stock.

5. In person many of them show that they are degenerates. In a word, most of these offenders are the product of unfavorable biologic and social conditions. In Great Britain biologic conditions predominate in offences against persons, while social conditions lead to other forms of crime.

Diminishing Juvenile Delinquency.

The reports of the police in New York show a decided lessening of juvenile offenders. Commitments of petty girl thieves fell off from one in every 743 in 1865, when the population was 726,386, to one in 8,259 in 1893. Male petty thieves have fallen off some 700 during twenty-five years. A like diminution of children's crimes is reported. In 1875 932 males and 207 females were arraigned, in 1893 only 238 males and 36 females.

These cheering results in our great metropolis are attributed to the labors of charitable and philanthropic societies. They show how surely juvenile vagrancy and crime will yield to remedial and preventive measures, and also confirm the belief that, when these

assume large dimensions and are systematically pursued, we may hope for a still more marked improvement in the character of our juvenile population.

Remedial Effort.

This lies along certain well-defined lines; and its promise and imperativeness are gaining public attention and more general support.

Environment is the first thing to be improved. The home is where the work of saving the rising generation must begin. In the interests of public morality, decent, wholesome homes must be guaranteed to the masses of the population which now crowd together in sections of our great cities. What are we to infer as to the early environment of such offenders as are found in the Elmira Reformatory, when we are told that, of more than 6,000 prisoners examined, over 50 per cent. came from *positively bad homes*, and 40 per cent. had only what could be described as *fairly good homes*. More than this, over 57 per cent. were in these homes at the time of committing crime, while the great proportion of the remainder did not leave home until after they were fourteen. The overcrowding of the population, both as to houses and districts, has confessedly evil effects of various and menacing kinds. All the privacy and sacredness that belong to home life are simply impossible in the tenements of the more densely populated wards of our cities. This is what lends such significance to the movement to improve the tenements. Notwithstanding all that has been done in this line in the city of Glasgow, 18 per cent. of the population in 1891 slept, cooked, and lived in a single room. This herding together of people is one fruitful source of the low morale among the young. There is no healthful home life possible under such conditions, and juvenile crime will not abate while this state of things is permitted. The emphasis needs to be put anew upon the home; and everything that the law can do should be done to secure the proper housing of those who can have little choice as to where they shall live, and this should be supplemented by every possible encouragement to philanthropic associations and individuals to erect model tenements. All such efforts publicly attest our interest in the promotion of a higher home life. It puts a premium on cleanliness, and opens the way for improvement in health and morals, now the great desideratum in the congested districts of all our larger cities. It is the greed of

landlords, the hitherto civic indifference to where or how the masses live, as well as the gregarious instincts of the people themselves, that has brought the overcrowding in New York City, where one ward (the tenth) exceeds in density of population that of any equivalent district in the known world. It is the moral side of this condition of things, with its menace to health and to morals, that this last winter in New York was brought to public attention, and reformatory efforts instituted, which bid fair to yield the desired fruit. And the pathos of the movement lies in the fact that it is really a cry for better homes. The people themselves are being imbued with better aspirations, and are beginning to realize the value of a cleanly, wholesome, and morally conditioned home. The better housing of the people means an improved outlook for the young. It means the restraints, safeguards, and helps of a well-conditioned home life. Establish this, exalt the domestic ideals of the city's denizens, and you will have done the most effective thing to stay juvenile crime and raise the morale of the rising generation. With this effort to improve the tenements in which over one-half of New York's population lives should be added whatever will affect the environment still further, as, for example, cleaner streets, neighborhood parks, public baths. In fact, there is in progress a general movement abroad as well as in our own land to secure fresh air and sunshine for the tenements, better sanitary conditions, small parks and playgrounds in the crowded sections of city and town; for these are indispensable to the health, the comfort, as well as morals, of the teeming millions. Glasgow maintains six or seven baths at a cost of $100,000 apiece. Other English cities have made nearly as liberal provision. Out of 255,035 in tenements covered by committee's inspection in New York, only 306 persons had access to bath-rooms in houses where they dwelt. Our contention is that an improved environment for the young will save them from crime,—will prove a good investment for the body politic.

Diversified Educational Facilities.

These must come in among remedial efforts that promise to improve the character of the young. Since the passage of the act of 1870, providing for primary and secondary education in England, the number of school children has increased from 1,500,000 to 5,000,000.

The number of persons in prison has fallen from 12,000 to 5,000, and juvenile delinquents and offenders have declined from 14,000 to 5,000. This Mr. Lubbock attributes in his address before the Sociological Convention in Paris, October, 1894, to the extension of education. Kindergartens wherever established, have been found not only to directly improve the taste, the habits,—in a word, the character,—of those who attend them, but indirectly to raise the tone of the homes whence these children come. Cleanliness, order, a cheerier, kindlier spirit, and better manners are the fruits of the kindergarten instruction in the humble abodes where these kindergartners live. Boys' clubs, with their libraries, gymnasia, games, and entertainments, promise to transform juvenile life in the city's slums. Crime to many youth is largely a question of athletics. Juvenile gangs have been the out-working of the super-abundant steam with which the young are supplied. The youthful tough is the product of the tenement. The gang can be supplanted by the "club"; and that means not only the proverbial ounce of prevention administered wisely, but the organization of boys for healthful and morally improving purposes. In many neighborhoods in some of our cities once infested with "gangs" of lawless youth are now well-organized clubs, which hold their members to a manly, pure life, allow expression to all their instincts for sport and society, and imbue them with better ambitions. This saves the youth from criminal acts and habits. The "neighborhood libraries" are already being recognized as valuable and potent agencies in reforming and refining youthful life. Æsthetic starvation is at the bottom of much of the dime-novel reading hitherto so pernicious in its effects. Put within reach good reading, and you will be surprised to see how eager is the desire for it. All this is genuine remedial work, and the results of it are such as to give promise of reclaiming juvenile life and of saving it from the influences likely to degrade it. We are on the eve of a marked revival of interest in this kind of work in behalf of youth, which needs only patience and systematic prosecution in order to affect its character and assure a brighter destiny.

How prodigious the task of training youth, of saving and shaping the young life on which the future weal of society depends! The trend of opinion and feeling is clear, strong, and decisive that this is work that must be taken up with courage and consecration. The air rings with the proof that social problems are supreme. We are

our brothers' keepers. The condition of the submerged tenth concerns the other nine-tenths. We need to know how "the other half lives." We want an awakened civic and social conscience. Evil is wrought for want of thought. Exposure of wrong is a duty. To prevent the huddling of the poor in unhealthy rooms, to protect childhood and youth from the corrupting influence of bad literature, to provide for them the restraints, the recreations, the social training, the broader and brighter life that we can, if we be intelligent and earnest, is our immediate obligation. This is work which has about it a charm those who have taken it up speak of with glowing faces; and it will give us what Ruskin says he has long pleaded for, "a clean country, a beautiful people." The work of the twentieth century will culminate in a reconstructed society in new cities wherein flourish righteousness, peace, and plenty, and where youthful life shall be their pride and glory.

THE OBLIGATIONS OF THE STATE TO JUVENILE DELINQUENTS.

BY M. G. FAIRBANKS, CONNECTICUT.

First, it may be well to take a retrospective view, and note the attitude which the God-fearing and law-abiding portions of the human race have ever held toward matters pertaining to the training and educating of children; and consider also that, as States and nations have become more and more civilized and Christianized, what has been the progress of human thought, what the ever-increasing conviction with regard to the duties and obligations which a State or community should assume and fulfil for the protection, training, and educating of its children and youth.

The earliest record of thought given to this subject is found in the Mosaic code of civil laws given to the Hebrew State. In their statutes mention is often made of the training and teaching of the children (as in Deut. iv. 8–10). By statute it was made a duty to teach the children the laws of God, and of their country as well, to the end that they might become good citizens, and the nation's life be perpetuated in prosperity.

Our Saviour inculcated the same great duty, when he said, "Suffer the children to come unto me, and forbid them not." How the primitive Church interpreted this command may be understood from the words of exhortation concerning the care of orphans.

Chastel, in his "Charities of the Primitive Churches," says, "Deserted, destitute, exposed children were in all respects to be cared for as the poor orphans."

In the admirable work entitled "The State of Prison and Child-saving Institutions in the Civilized World," by E. C. Wines, D.D., LL.D., we find much of the early history of child-saving work. He writes of the Emperor Constantine that he began the work of child-saving after his conversion from Paganism to Christianity. Numerous decrees were issued by him with the intention of assuring to them a paternal and protecting tutelage.

Concerning the supreme importance to the State of child-saving work, Dr. Channing said in 1841: "Society has hitherto employed its energy chiefly to punish crime. It is infinitely more important to prevent it. What I want is, not merely that society shall protect itself against crime, but that it shall do all that it can to preserve its exposed members from crime, and so to do for the sake of those members as for its own. It ought not to breed monsters in its own bosom. If it will not use its prosperity to save the ignorant and poor from the blackest vice, then it must suffer, and deserves to suffer, from crime.

"If the child be left to grow up in utter ignorance of duty, of its Maker, of its relations to society, and to grow up in an atmosphere of profaneness and intemperance, and in the practice of falsehood and fraud, let not the community complain of its crime. It has quietly looked on and seen him, year after year, arming himself against its order and peace; and who is most to blame when at last he deals the guilty blow? A moral care over the tempted and ignorant portion of the State is a primary duty of society."

In "Ginx's Baby" occur these lines, pregnant with truth: —

"While prisons and criminal laws and prison discipline call loudly for reform, and appeal strongly to benevolent hearts and wise heads, the best reform that can be secured in reference to penitentiaries is to deplete them of their inmates by saving the young from vicious and criminal courses. The real problem is not so much to improve prisons as to abolish them, not so much to make them better as to make them useless."

These citations simply remind us that the history of the past affords not only the precedent, but the basis, for well-founded conviction that the State, by civil laws, should not only make it possible for children of all ages, without reference to age, race, or condition, to receive proper care, protection, restraint, training, discipline, and a liberal education, moral, religious, and intellectual, but should make it impossible for a child to be born and reared in our enlightened land without receiving the same.

To what extent the State has a right to interpose in the family relations, for the benefit of the child, has ever been a question upon which legal authorities have to some extent disagreed.

It was said by Plutarch that "Lycurgus resolved the whole business of legislation into the bringing up of youth. He looked upon it as the greatest and most glorious work of the lawgiver. He considered the children not so much the property of their parents as of the State, and that each man was born not so much for himself as for his country."

To-day we may confidently affirm that the most enlightened minds and the most eminent legal authorities agree that, in the light of Christianity and of an advanced civilization, the State is under obligation to see that the child of the poorest citizen be so restrained and disciplined, and so instructed in the great principles of right and wrong, and receive such an education, as shall fit him to discharge intelligently the duties and responsibilities of good citizenship.

It is justly claimed that parents having adequate means should give to their children a liberal education. Shall the State, with ample means, give to those children over whom she has assumed control less than a truly liberal fitting for life's duties? Should the State measure her duty by the inability of the poor?

The time to begin the work of child-saving is long before any specially wayward act is committed; it is with the prattling child who is allowed, for any reason whatever, to fall into the company of vicious associates.

In a Sunday-school journal for March, 1895, the following statement was made: "The civil authorities of several countries of Europe have been gradually led to recognize that there are many cases in which the State must take the training of children upon itself.

"In 1802 Robert Peel secured the act regulating the work of chil-

dren. In 1839 Russia and Austria did the same. France followed in 1841. A step long in advance of that was the admission of the principle of forfeiture of parental control, under given conditions, by Russia, Poland, Portugal, Italy, and Switzerland. The exercise of parental power has in Germany become subject to the supervision of a public guardian. England claims in the name of the queen, through the lord chancellor, a control above that of a father. Spain acknowledged this principle in 1889."

A republican government must see to it that the boys who are to make the men who are to make the laws are so educated as to cast their votes intelligently, that the girls who are to be the mothers of the sons are tenderly cared for, fully protected, wisely directed, and liberally educated. We shall fall behind other forms of government if we fail to lead in this work rather than follow.

The measure of the interposition that the State may rightfully extend in behalf of the child is doubtless that which is adequate to give to every child such moral, religious, and educational advantages as are necessary for its truest development. The State is subserving its own interests, as well as those of the child, when it provides that which is withheld, because of the poverty, ignorance, viciousness, or blunted moral sensibilities of the parent. This being true, certainly it is the unquestionable duty of the State to care especially for juvenile delinquents, who are more to be pitied than blamed. They are the product of untoward circumstances, of evil environments. And some are under the curse which visits the iniquities of the parents upon the children unto the third and fourth generation.

Dr. Wines expressed a truth not yet sufficiently recognized, when he said, "The two master forces which have heretofore opposed, and still oppose, the progress of prison discipline and reform in our country are political influence and instability of administration, which stand to each other in the relation of cause and effect." This is none the less true of our juvenile reformatories, where the management is more or less controlled by political interests. Politics should never have any controlling hand whatever in child-saving, reformative, or prison work.

In the United States the method generally adopted in caring for juvenile delinquents is through State institutions. Would it not have been better, had the form so uniformly adopted in England been more prevalent with us,—private corporative management, combined

with and sustained by State aid and supervision? An institution so formed is in the control of its truest friends; and, except in cases of mal-administration, outside influences do not interfere with its management. Our Connecticut Industrial School for Girls is established on this plan.

Child-saving work is still in its infancy. The obligations of our States in behalf of the children are great, and are but partially fulfilled. The best thing to be done is to make reform schools less necessary. To this end we have many laws upon our books, but public sentiment does not compel their enforcement. I refer to laws against intemperance, vulgarity, obscenity, profanity, and kindred evils.

Our many agencies engaged in child-saving work,— the infant nurseries, the kindergarten schools, homes for destitute children, orphan asylums, day industrial schools, where food and instruction are provided, industrial boarding schools, where lodging and clothing are added, apprentice schools, State, reform, and industrial schools,— all are accomplishing a grand and noble Christian work. But who does not know that in many, if not all our States, there are many unfortunate, neglected, unprotected children, who are unreached by all our organized charities combined?

States differ also as to methods and as to the expenses to be incurred in caring for juvenile delinquents.

Much has also been said concerning the relative value of the congregate and family systems in reformatory schools. The best we could ever do for any child would be to place it in a private Christian home, where it would be received and cared for, trained and educated, as a son or daughter would be by people of ordinary means; and a sufficient sum should be paid by the State, if need be, to secure this treatment of the child. Such a home for the child, with kindly and parental relations, is the only home that can be claimed to be better for the child than an industrial or reform school organized on the family plan, provided such school is characterized by the same kindly, parental, Christian spirit. But such homes, we dare assert, cannot be found in sufficient numbers to receive but a small portion of these children in the condition in which they are usually received in our schools. A home, we admit, may be found that will take the child for the benefit to be derived from its services and the funds to be received on its account; but

few will be found to receive such a child, with all its moral deficiencies, in the true missionary spirit, that seeks its greatest good. And only as such homes are found does the State discharge its duties to the child or are its rights protected and subserved. We most sincerely deprecate the plan of placing these children directly, either from the homes in which they are found or from the street, in families where their rights will not be fully protected, and liberal educational advantages received.

Shall we as a nation grudge all necessary expense in caring for the unfortunate children and youth of our land, while a billion dollars or more are annually spent for strong drink? Shall we as States withhold needed funds for the reformation and eternal good of these children, when from the laboring class alone, in a single county of a single State, eleven million dollars was spent for drink in a single year? We are not poor as States or as a nation. The sun shines on no so prosperous a people. But, were we poor, we could not afford to fail to care for the children to the full extent of their needs; for therein is the nation's strength.

There is nothing in the end so expensive to any people as to neglect to train up the children in the way they should go, as to fail to liberally educate them for the duties and responsibilities of good citizenship.

The thought of making the labor of the inmates of our schools remunerative is dropping out of sight; and nobler and more paternal feelings find expression in the ever-increasing interest manifested by introducing trades and industries, that the inmates may be self-sustaining members of society, wherever they go.

The question is not, How much can these children be made to help the State sustain and educate them? but How much can the State do to make of them good, intelligent, self-supporting citizens?

Several of the prison congresses of the past have declared in favor of a special education of prison officials for their work. They have advocated the establishment, by States, of normal schools or colleges for such purpose. Such an institute was founded at Rome as early as 1873. There is no doubt that this is a step in the right direction. If for prisons and prison reformatories such a preparation is needed for persons who propose entering upon the work, is it not equally desirable that those who are to become the guardians and teachers of the young should receive a preparation for such work which

shall enable them more intelligently and successfully to discharge the duties and responsibilities of their positions, since from the very nature of the case inmates of our juvenile reformatories are more susceptible and teachable than those of older years, who are more hardened in crime?

May God speed the time when, far in advance of our present achievements in child-saving work, in juvenile reformation, every State in our Union shall fulfil her obligations to the only truly hopeful portion of neglected humanity,— our neglected children and youth,— and, remembering the injunction of our blessed Master when he said, "Suffer the children to come unto me," in the spirit of a true, generous, Christian charity, lift these misguided, unfortunate ones into the purer atmosphere of a practical Christianity, and by example and precepts and liberal educational advantages fit them for usefulness in the life that now is and for the continued service of the Master in the life which is to come!

XI

Immigration and Interstate Migration.

IMMIGRATION.

BY DR. CHARLES S. HOYT, OF NEW YORK.

When the Standing Committee on Immigration and Interstate Migration formulated its programme for this Conference, Congress was in session; and it then seemed probable that before its adjournment there would be important legislation in respect to immigration, calling for an extended paper upon the subject. A number of bills further regulating and restricting immigration were introduced into both Houses early in the session, but no measure upon the subject was perfected and passed. The statutes affecting immigration, therefore, remain the same as in 1893, with the exception of the act of June, 1894, increasing the head tax from fifty cents to one dollar for each immigrant, and making the office of Commissioner of Immigration a Presidential appointment, and the decisions of the Immigration Commissioners final, except in cases of appeal to the Treasury Department. As the subject of immigration and the statutes in relation thereto were considered at length by the committee at the Chicago Conference in 1893, it is not thought advisable to occupy the time of this Conference with an extended paper upon the matter, which necessarily would be largely a repetition of the facts and conclusions then presented. The committee, therefore, decided to restrict the paper on Immigration to the briefest possible space, thus giving opportunity for a fuller and more extended presentation of the closely allied and highly important subject of Interstate Migration.

The decrease in immigration during the past three years seems to require brief mention. The immigrant arrivals in 1892 were 581,827. In 1893 they fell off to 440,783, and in 1894 to 288,020. The arrivals for the first nine months of the fiscal year 1895 were

only 140,980, so that the total immigrant arrivals for the present year are not likely greatly, if any, to exceed 200,000. If we search for the causes of this great decrease in immigration during the past three years, they will be found in the prevalence of cholera abroad in 1892 and early in 1893, and since then in the depressed and stagnant condition of business in this country, with little or no demand for remunerative labor. The more thorough execution of the immigration laws and the deportation of greater numbers of the prohibited classes than in former years, not only by the federal authorities, but also by States and municipalities, have, doubtless, in some measure served to lessen the volume of immigration during this period, by deterring many from leaving their homes with an uncertainty as to their securing a landing and permanent lodgment in this country upon their arrival. During this period there has been a large outflow of alien steerage passengers to various European countries, induced by depressed business conditions in this country, and stimulated largely by the low rate of outward steerage passage. It has not been uncommon, within the past two years, for outgoing steamers to be crowded with such steerage passengers, equal with incoming steamers in the most prosperous times and active periods of immigration; and, although we have no exact data as to the number of such departures during this time, it is safe to estimate that they nearly, if not quite, equal the immigrant arrivals.

These anomalous conditions in respect to immigration are not likely, however, long to continue. With the return of prosperity and the revival of business enterprises in this country the tide of immigration is certain again to set to our shores in increased volume, with its attendant evils, unless checked and restrained by stringent, wholesome, and wisely administered restrictive laws. Under the depressed conditions of the country following the panic of 1873 the immigrant arrivals fell off from 422,545 in that year to 260,814 in 1874, to 191,237 in 1875, to 157,440 in 1876, and to 130,502 in 1877, the lowest number reached within the last two decades. The increase of arrivals began in 1878, rising to 593,703 in 1880, to 720,045 in 1881, and to 730,349 in 1882, the highest number ever reached in any single year in the history of the country. It seems fitting, therefore, as we are doubtless on the eve of another heavy inflow of immigrant arrivals, as before stated, that we carefully examine and inquire into the laws and methods in vogue for the pro-

tection of the country against the shipment and landing of the disturbing, burdensome, and troublesome classes on our shores, and, if such laws and methods be found defective for the purposes intended, seek to remedy them by appropriate legislation and the establishment and enforcement of wholesome rules and regulations upon the subject.

The federal statutes in relation to immigration seem to impose nearly all the restrictions necessary against the introduction into this country of criminals, paupers, lunatics, and other disturbing and burdensome classes from foreign countries. These statutes are believed to be defective, however, in that the inspection of intending immigrants at the ports of departure is by the masters or commanding officers and the surgeons of the steamships or vessels bringing them to this country instead of by United States officers appointed and stationed abroad for the purpose. When epidemic cholera in Europe threatened this country in 1892, we wisely adopted measures to combat the disease and restrict its spread, by extending our hospital accommodations and placing our cities in the highest sanitary condition in the event of its reaching our shores. As a further protection against the invasion of the disease, Congress empowered the Secretary of the Treasury to appoint and send abroad sanitary inspectors, who, in connection with our United States consuls at the various ports, were authorized to establish and prescribe rules and regulations regarding the embarkation of intending immigrants, and, in case of such immigrants coming from infected districts, to enforce their detention under strict quarantine rules and regulations until danger from the infection had passed. This prompt and energetic action resulted in confining the disease to the sources of its emanation, and thus saved this country from its devastating ravages; and it is believed that like beneficial results would follow a thorough inspection of all intending immigrants by competent United States officers under consular direction at the various ports of departure, by excluding the prohibited classes generally, many of which, under the present imperfect system of inspection abroad, are now enabled to reach our shores.

Various other means for the regulation and restriction of immigration have been suggested, among which are an increase of the head money tax and an educational qualification. The former might well be applied to the alien sojourner coming to this country for the ad-

vantages of labor and intending to return to enjoy its benefits at his home; but any general system of heavy taxation of immigrants is inharmonious with our American ideas, and any proposition in this direction would probably meet with but little favor. There is much in the latter, or educational proposition, to commend itself to public favor; and it has the earnest support of persons of large and extended observation upon the subject. Whatever further conditions may be imposed in respect to immigration, it is believed, as before stated, that the examinations should be made by United States inspectors under consular direction, and the tests in all cases applied at the ports of departure, instead of leaving the eligibility of the persons to enter the country to be officially determined, as at present, at the ports of landing.

The desire for the further restriction of immigration, so as to enable us to assimilate and bring into accord with American ideas our already large alien population, with no correct conceptions of our social or governmental systems, is so universally prevalent that any just and reasonable proposition to this effect, it is believed, would command universal and hearty support.

INTERSTATE MIGRATION.

BY H. H. HART,

SECRETARY OF THE MINNESOTA STATE BOARD OF CORRECTIONS AND CHARITIES.

This important subject has received but little attention in this Conference except as it has come up in connection with the subject of immigration. In the report of Mr. Sanborn at the Denver Conference in 1892 the question was discussed intelligently and as practically as the very limited data attainable would allow.

It has been assumed in the discussion of this question in the past — as, indeed, it is assumed in our State legislation generally — that each country and each State is bound to carry its own burden of pauperism, insanity, and crime, and that a wrong is done whenever a pauper or criminal is transferred from the place where he be-

came a pauper or a criminal to another country or another State. I am inclined to take issue with this view.

The care of a dependent or delinquent is a charge upon the more prudent and the more law-abiding portions of the community. Interstate migration is constantly tending to transfer to the newer portions of the country the best elements of the older communities. The most enterprising business men, the most ambitious lawyers, the most progressive teachers, the most zealous ministers, the most active farmers, mechanics, and laboring men have forsaken the established communities of the East, and have engaged in building up new empires in the West. These migratory people have left behind them in the East the weaker elements of their several classes. If a member of the family is insane, he is left in an Eastern asylum. If a pauper, he is left in an almshouse. If a criminal, he is left in a prison. If he is infirm or old or unenterprising, he is left on the old homestead, to be cared for and assisted, if necessary, by the community in which he lives.

The result has been that the newer States have been peopled with a fresh population, including much less than a normal proportion of dependants or criminals. Professor A. O. Wright brought out the fact, in a paper read before this Conference in 1884, that "the largest proportion of insanity was to be found in the New England States, next in the Middle States, and next in the interior States." The same general fact was revealed in the census of 1890. In other words, the proportion of insanity is greatest in the oldest and settled States, and smallest in the new and recently populated States. The census of 1890 shows that the same is true of the almshouse population. The North Atlantic States have a ratio of 1,790 almshouse paupers in the million; the North Central States, 1,145; and the Western States, 1,036. The census shows the ratio of prisoners to be as follows: in the North Atlantic States, 6,550 in the million; in the North Central States, 3,900 in the million; and in the Western States, 7,130 in the million. Here we have an exception to the general rule which is found in the mining States of Colorado, Arizona, Nevada, and California. In no one of the North Central States is the ratio of prisoners equal to the average ratio for the North Atlantic States.

On the whole, interstate migration operates greatly in favor of the newer States; and, if there were any way in which they could be

made to take a fair portion of the burden of dependency which legitimately belongs to the people who come from the older States, it would be equitable that they should do so. But there does not seem to be any way in which this could be done; and the older States must continue to bear a disproportionate share of the burden until the new States become old, and the equilibrium is restored by the natural increase. One reason why the question of interstate migration of paupers and criminals has received so little attention is probably because those who are familiar with the subject know that the burdens of the younger States in this particular are comparatively light. Ohio, Indiana, Michigan, and Illinois begin to feel the pressure of the burdens that press upon Massachusetts and New York; but there are no slums west of Chicago, and no Western city has any large number of paupers "without visible means of support." The entire State of Minnesota, with a population of 1,500,000 people, has, even in these times, only 487 almshouse paupers. The city of Buffalo, N.Y., alone, has 696 almshouse paupers, which is nearly 50 per cent. more than the entire State of Minnesota. The city of Cleveland has 547; and the city of Cincinnati, 773.

The subject of interstate migration of paupers and criminals is not serious, economically considered, except for a few cities which lie in the travelled road between the East and the West; but it is an important question to the student of charity, for it tends to breed paupers, and it is a great obstacle to the repression of crime and the reformation of criminals.

Travelling paupers inflict a double burden upon the community. We do not let people starve in this country, if they cannot or do not feed themselves; and, in the case of the travelling pauper, we not only feed him, but pay his travelling expenses besides. It is astonishing the facility with which the penniless pauper travels from one end of the United States to the other,— not only the travelling "bum" who steals rides on the freight cars, but the less disreputable traveller who goes on a half-fare ticket in a first-class car. Some time ago a woman, with two or three children, applied to the public authorities at Detroit for assistance to go to her husband in Manitoba. She was likely to become a public charge, and she was told that the best they could do was to send her to Chicago. Arriving in Chicago, she applied to the charitable agencies there. They could not let her starve, they had not the firmness to send her back to

Detroit. So they gave her a half-fare ticket to St. Paul. The St. Paul charitable agencies, in turn, sent her to Winnipeg; and the Winnipeg authorities sent her to her destination. I do not know whether she returned to Detroit or not; but she would have had no difficulty in doing so by the reversed process. An old man came from Providence, R.I., to St. Paul with ease and despatch in search of some mythical relatives. An old woman came from Arkansas to St. Paul by boat to find some friends who, she understood, "lived near St. Paul." She sojourned contentedly for a month at the Home for the Friendless while a vain search was made for the friends who did not exist; and then she returned by the way she came, well pleased with the free summer outing.

As a preliminary to the preparation of this paper, the following inquiries were addressed to the officers of charity organization societies or similar organizations in Pittsburg, Cleveland, Detroit, Cincinnati, Indianapolis, Chicago, Omaha, and Burlington, selected because they are situated on the main travelled lines.

1. What can you say of the practice of sending paupers from the State in which they belong to other States for the purpose of getting rid of them?

2. What can you say of the practice of sending paupers from the State to which they do not belong to other States to which they do not belong for the purpose of getting rid of them?

3. What can you say of the facility with which indigent persons travel from one State to another by the use of public charities and private charitable organizations?

4. What information can you give relative to the coming of foreign immigrant paupers into the interior States, who have eluded the authorities at the seaboard? Have you any information of such people being sent through to interior points from foreign countries?

5. What remedies would you suggest for the evils connected with such migration, so far as there are any?

a. Would you advise an effort for concurrent legislation on the part of the several States?

b. Would you advise that in all cases, indigent persons, forwarded at public expense, be sent back in the direction which they come rather than to be transmitted to their destination?

(1) As to the practice of sending paupers from States in which they belong to other States for the purpose of getting rid of them,

the reports indicate that the practice is a common one, though, as Rev. A. W. Clark, of the Omaha Associated Charities, says, "In the majority of cases those who send the paupers away do it with the plea that they are not their own citizens."

The correspondents unite in denouncing the practice. Mr. Raymond, of Cleveland, says, "You cannot be too emphatic in denouncing such a course: the practice has been long continued, and is steadily increasing." Dr. Post, of the Detroit Charity Association, says: "It is a bad practice and productive of much trouble and injustice both to the pauper and to the communities where they are sent, and increases the difficulty of improving the pauper's condition, and especially that of the children, if he has any. Remaining where they belong, and where their circumstances are thoroughly known, they can be more satisfactorily cared for." Dr. Trusdell, of the Chicago Relief and Aid Society, says: "The practice cannot be too emphatically condemned except in the cases where there is satisfactory assurance that friends will care for them elsewhere." Dr. Ayres, of the Cincinnati Associated Charities, says: "It appears to me a vicious practice. It is based on selfishness, and is wholly contrary to that humane spirit which takes an interest in every man or woman with whom it comes in contact." Secretary Grout, of the Indianapolis Charity Organization Society, says that the practice does not prevail in Indiana. Mr. McGonnigle, of Pittsburg, says: "Pennsylvania is to-day suffering from paupers shipped from Eastern and Western States (especially, Western). Ordinarily, these persons are weak-minded; and it is many times almost impossible to secure any definite information and data concerning their former place of residence."

(2) In answer to the second question, as to the shipment of paupers from States to which they do not belong to other States in order to get rid of them, the testimony is less positive. The practice prevails to a considerable extent where paupers are found in transit from State to State. The usual practice seems to be to forward them in the direction in which they are travelling. Some of the correspondents point out the fact that this practice aggravates the evil.

(3) In regard to the third question, as to the facility with which indigent people travel from one State to another by the use of public charities and private organizations, several of the correspondents point out the fact that it results from lack of proper investigation, and

that, if the rule were rigidly applied, that no paupers could be sent from the State boundary until careful investigation was made, both locally and at the point of their destination, this evil would stop of itself. Others think that the railroad companies are too free in granting "charity rates." Mr. Clark reports that, "since the organization of the Associated Charities in Omaha, it has not been so easy for such people to pass this point as it had been previously." Dr. Post reports that many families are by these means kept moving from place to place, and that it begets bad habits and encourages a roving disposition. Mr. Grout reports that indigent people travel with ease through the State of Indiana. Mr. McGonnigle says: "There are a large number of persons travelling over our State continually, on some pretext or other, who have received transportation from various towns or cities." He thinks that this practice is not quite so extensive as it was formerly. In Pittsburg applicants for transportation are offered almshouse board until their application can be investigated. The result has been a great decrease of applications.

(4) With reference to the coming of foreign emigrants, who elude the authorities at the seaboard, into the interior States, most of the correspondents report that they have no definite information. Mr. Clark mentions only one such case at Omaha. Dr. Ayres says that a few have been found in Cincinnati, but have been promptly returned to Europe through the authorities in New York. Mr. McGonnigle says: "This community has been troubled to a great extent with paupers shipped from foreign countries. Many of them have been inmates of almshouses in foreign countries, and have been sent here on the pretence that their friends here will care for them. In many instances their friends cannot provide for them, and they are turned over to the department of charities." He adds, "There is no doubt that this is a very general practice, and there seems to be no difficulty in the parties eluding the authorities at the seaboard." Mr. McGonnigle cites seven specific cases.

(5) In reply to the question, What remedies would you suggest for the evils connected with interstate migration, so far as there are any? Mr. McGonnigle believes that the State authorities ought to unite in an effort to secure national legislation. Mr. Raymond, Dr. Post, Mr. Grout, and Mr. McGonnigle think that travelling paupers should be sent back in the direction in which they came. Dr. Ayres

and Mr. Clark (and perhaps Miss Starr) think that there should be exceptions to this rule. Dr. Ayres says, "The authorities first sending the pauper sometimes exercise intense cruelty in sending sick and destitute persons, and especially widows and deserted women with little children, from town to town instead of to their desired destination."

Dr. Ayres says: "To prevent interstate migration and a continuous transportation of paupers, I do not see any practical legislative remedy except the suppression of the public funds for this purpose. Of course, if one State does this without the others, it becomes the dumping-ground of its neighbors. I am inclined to think that if the public funds were cut off, private aid in most instances would be sufficient for the sick and destitute. I believe that the city of Brooklyn has had no public transportation for some years."

Dr. Ayres suggests further, "Is it not possible that much good could be accomplished if a circular letter were addressed to all public authorities, urging them: (*a*) to send no persons away who properly belong to them; (*b*) to send only clear through to the destination, and after the applicant has been carefully examined, with letters from the point of destination, when practicable; (*c*) urging all railways to be far more careful relative to free transportation of tramps, as well as half-rate arrangements with city and town authorities for the alleged destitute?"

Mr. Raymond says, "The indigent person 'on the tramp' will only cease his tramping when a work order, and not a railroad ticket, is given him." He says, "I am beginning to believe that the only way out of the trouble will be for each State to enact laws that will compel the tramp to work at road-making on the roads, they to be housed at stations erected or rented by the State, and then given work under the supervision of the State overseer, payment to be made in board, lodging, and some money; the pay, however, not to be sufficient to tempt men to put in their time at this kind of work." Miss M. E. Starr, of Burlington, suggests: "Through investigation and classification into those believed to be habitual vagrants or tramps, commitment to House of Correction, with indefinite sentence; those who are believed to be capable of such training as will make them independent members of society at large to be trained industrially; those believed to be capable of support only under constant guidance to be placed in farm colonies; those unable to

wholly support themselves to be partly relieved and partly supported by their labor."

Mr. Clark summarizes the situation as follows: "I confess that this phase of work, as it has confronted me here in Omaha, has been more difficult than anything else; and, as you will see by my answer to your questions, I do not have any very strong convictions as to handling these problems. I think we must get along the best we can, dealing with each individual case as it rises on the broadest principles of justice and righteousness. Cases of consumption and other cases I would help on to a better climate."

This correspondence does not touch upon the question of interstate migration of criminals. Naturally, there is very little information available on this point. The Prison Wardens' Association made the effort some years ago to establish a central registration bureau, whereby all criminals should be registered by the Bertillon system, and it would become possible to trace the movements of those discharged criminals who are recommitted; but this effort failed for lack of sufficient co-operation. It is well known, however, that habitual criminals drift from State to State. There is no bar to the free migration of criminals. Habitual criminals, when they become known in one State, usually seek a fresh field of activity, where they are not known to the police and the prison authorities.

As a result of this inquiry, I am convinced that it is impossible to reach the case by State legislation, for the reason that uniform legislation cannot be secured.

What is needed is a federal law to regulate the migration from State to State of paupers and dependants. Penalties should be imposed for sending paupers from one State to another except where they had a residence or had friends who are responsible for their care. The law should declare what constitutes a legal residence within a State, and federal officers should be designated to decide the questions arising under it.

XII.

Training Schools for Nurses.

THE MORAL INFLUENCE OF TRAINED NURSES IN HOSPITALS.

BY LINDA RICHARDS,

SUPERINTENDENT BROOKLYN HOMŒOPATHIC HOSPITAL.

Miss Florence Nightingale, in a letter read at a meeting recently held in London for the purpose of raising a fund to enable St. Thomas' Hospital to open wards, now not in use, says: "May I venture to call attention to the moral effect of such wards upon the patient's future life? The men cease to swear, the women learn habits of decency, order, and cleanliness, which may be carried out at home. The children hear good words, perhaps for the first time."

These are the words of a woman whose judgment is universally respected, whose life has been spent in devising means for the improvement of hospitals for the sick poor. Much of the good accomplished by her is the result of work done by training schools for nurses connected with these hospitals. She has carefully watched the effect produced by these schools, and speaks from actual knowledge when she makes this statement.

Miss Nightingale speaks of the work done in Great Britain; but have not the training schools of America produced the same results?

To enable us to decide this intelligently, we must compare our hospitals at the present time with the same hospitals before the organization of training schools. We will take first one well known to many of us, Charity Hospital on Blackwell's Island, a visit to which, before the organization of the training school, made one heart sick. Untidy wards filled to overflowing with discontented, neglected-looking patients, who received the little attention given

them from nurses of the same class as themselves, who, when asked to do so, showed one about the wards with an air of insolence not pleasant to remember,— such is the picture we look back upon. To-day, when we visit this same hospital, we find wards scrupulously clean, filled with patients who look happy and well cared for. Educated, ladylike, refined nurses take pleasure in showing us about the wards, and are ready to give us all desired information. The moral tone of the place is so improved that one feels the change upon entering the door, and wonders if this is the Charity Hospital of years ago.

The change is no less noticeable in Bellevue Hospital, New York, in Blackley Hospital, Philadelphia, and in many others which could be mentioned. This marvellous change is due to nothing but the introduction of training schools into these hospitals.

Miss Nightingale says men cease to swear. Do we find this to be the case? Most assuredly. No word of profanity is ever heard in a hospital where trained nurses are found. Men who have probably never spoken one sentence free from oaths cease to swear when they enter the hospital ward; and not only do they cease to be profane, but they learn to be polite, and that without special instruction. The moral tone of the wards is such that to the men themselves profanity and coarseness seem out of place; and, while they remain in the hospital, they are respectable members of society. They are entirely different from the men who entered the ward, resembling them only in name and features. They have now a few clean pages in their books of life upon which to look back. What a blessing! It may save them from crime some day.

The influence upon the women, while no more marked, is perhaps more lasting. Many a poor woman dates her changed life from a short stay in some hospital ward, where trained nurses ministered to her physical needs, and by helpful words strengthened her moral nature. In the nurse she found a true friend. She made her an example; and, in trying to become like her, she grew into a self-respecting and a respected woman. Many instances like these present themselves to the mind of one who has spent years in hospital work. May I be allowed to give one?

Into a ward in a large city hospital was taken a woman. One can hardly imagine a person more repulsive to look upon,— filthy, raving with the madness caused by drink. Yet this was a human being

who needed care. She was made clean, put into a room by herself until reason was restored, when she was taken to a ward and put into a clean bed. Left to herself, she soon took in all that was going on round her. The nurses were kind and attentive to her, and she felt herself among friends. In a day or two, as the nurse was working over her, she related the story of her life. Born in the home of a drunkard, she had in youth received more blows than kind words. At an early age she married an intemperate man. She drank with him, and they lived the life usual to that class of people. At the age of twenty-five, in a hospital and among strangers, she first learned the meaning of true kindness. She saw life in an entirely new light, was ashamed of her past life, and resolved to live a better. This she told the nurse. She was encouraged to feel that she could reform, and left the hospital, saying, "I will live a sober life." Nothing was heard of her for some weeks, when one day the nurse met her on the street. She was neatly dressed, and looked respectable. She said, "I have been sober ever since I left the hospital; have worked every day, and am happy." A few weeks of respectable living had completely changed her. Who can estimate the meaning of it to her? and this because of the moral influence of one hospital ward. In more instances than one has the stay in the hospital been the means of preventing a sojourn in some place of correction, and the woman thereby given another opportunity to reform.

But, if we notice this marked change in the women and men, we must be prepared to find a still greater change in the children. The little street Arab, who has been the leader in all kinds of mischief till some accident has befallen him, and he finds himself in a hospital, soon is transformed into a most obedient, polite, and attractive child. The pretty children's ward with its clean cribs, the wholesome food well served, the nurses who are always kind to him, the absence of harsh words and quarrels, make the place seem like heaven to him; and he can no longer be the boy he was in the old days. How long this influence will live with him after leaving the hospital no one can tell. But, so long as it lives in his memory, it is an influence for good.

A little fellow was taken to a hospital, where he remained several weeks. When he was well enough to go to his home, his father went for him. The child cried to remain; but the bed was wanted for others, and he went away. A few days after his father called to

thank the nurses for the care given him. He said, "You were good to my boy; but, since he has been home, he has made us a great deal of work, for he will not eat his meals without a clean cloth under his chin." The influence had gone home with him, and was taking root there. Indeed, the moral influence is truly great and far-reaching. These nurses give that which is of more value than money. They give their strength, their time, their sympathy, and not infrequently their lives in the service of the sick poor. The nurse is a blessing to the sick, to the overworked mothers a wise counsellor, to the weak morally a tower of strength, to the erring a safe guide. Like soldiers, they are ever ready when duty calls.

In a hospital ward lies a dying woman. Her face is turned toward the wall, against which her bed stands. On a table by the bed stands a lighted candle. The door of an adjoining ward opens noiselessly, and the nurse enters. She goes to the bed of the dying woman. As she bends over her, a smile lights up the sick face, and the weak voice says: "I knew you were coming. I watch for your shadow on the wall." It is the nurse who is watched for, and she gives the last words of comfort. She is the only friend the dying woman has. What charity can be greater than this?

THE TRAINED NURSE.

THE CARE OF THE SICK POOR IN THEIR HOMES.

BY SOPHIA F. PALMER, WASHINGTON, D.C.

From practical experience I have little knowledge of the care of the sick poor in their homes; for, although one of the veterans of the profession of which I have the honor to be a member, my work has been confined to the more conventional branches of private and hospital nursing. I propose to deal only in a general way with this subject.

The objects and methods of district nursing have been presented to this convention at the meetings held the two preceding years. In Chicago, two years ago, Miss Houghs and Mrs. Craven, of London, contributed two interesting papers on the system of district

nursing in London and other parts of England. Miss Somerville, one of the district nurses of Boston, read a paper before the Nursing Section, in which the work of that city was described in an exceedingly realistic manner.

Last year, at the meeting in Nashville, the subject was again presented to you in a paper written by Miss Brent, of Brooklyn; and Miss Lathrop, of Hull House, told you something of the work in Chicago.

Boston, Philadelphia, and Chicago lead in this movement; but in many of the smaller cities and towns the district nurse is a recognized factor. There are other ways, however, aside from the organized district nursing associations, in which nurses are employed for the care of the sick poor in their homes. Many Protestant churches of different denominations employ trained nurses for the care of the sick poor of their parishes. The Methodist Church is training its deaconesses for this work.

Charitably inclined individuals often make a trained nurse their agent in relieving not only the physical suffering, but the poverty of certain poor people in whom they are interested; or a nurse is provided for a dispensary or for the outdoor service of a hospital. New York presents the greatest variety of methods by which the sick poor are being cared for in their homes. It has no separate district nursing association; but, in connection with the New York City Missionary Society, ten trained nurses are employed, working in the poor districts below 14th Street. These nurses are paid $40 and $45 per month, and are required to live at the Home for Christian Workers, where for $5 per week they are provided with very comfortable rooms and board. These nurses work on practically the same lines as the regular district nurses, following the idea of instruction and using every precaution against pauperizing. They care principally for that class of patients not admitted to hospitals, largely chronic and crippled.

St. John's Guild — which is non-sectarian — employs four trained nurses, who have no regular district, but respond to calls made to the Guild office in any section of the city. The work of the Guild nurses is principally among children. These nurses are paid $60 per month, and board themselves. The Ethical Culture Society employs a number of nurses, who work in connection with certain dispensaries.

On the East Side — Avenue A in the neighborhood of 82d Street — is a society organized for teaching purposes, under the auspices of the Church of the Redeemer. The people in the neighborhood are self-supporting, unless misfortune overtakes them, and pay a nominal price for the instruction given. A kindergarten is one feature, classes of various kinds for larger girls and boys another; and every effort is made to elevate these people through social intercourse. Part of a house is rented for this purpose; and the additional funds needed are raised by a girls' club, in connection with the church already mentioned. In connection with this society, renting rooms in the same building, but quite distinct from them financially, are two trained nurses. These women take work at the regular rates — from $21 to $25 per week — when such cases offer; but the time unemployed in this way is devoted to the sick poor in the neighborhood, at a charge of ten cents a visit. This settlement, as it is called, aims to give no gratuitous service, as the community is not in a pauper district. This method is quite distinct from the district nursing, although it follows the line of instructive work.

Another scheme has been attempted by the Nurses' Club of New York, numbering about sixty members. A year ago last winter a volunteer corps was started, by which fifteen of these nurses agreed to give unemployed time to the care of the sick poor in their homes, the calls coming to them through one of the Episcopal dispensaries.

Much good work was accomplished, and the plan was considered a success; but, for the lack of proper organization, the idea was not carried out during the last winter, although another year the organization will probably be perfected, and the work carried on on a much larger scale.

New York has the first nursing settlement. Miss Wald, a graduate of the New York Hospital Training School, is the pioneer in this movement. These nurses live in a tenement house in the Tenth Ward, surrounded by the very poorest class of foreigners in New York. Tenements are miserably overcrowded, the sanitary conditions are of the worst, school facilities are deficient, and the English language is rarely heard, the masses of the people being Russian Jews of the lowest type.

So far as I have been able to learn, the methods by which nurses are working in other cities can be included in some one of the systems mentioned.

The Visiting Nurses' Association of Philadelphia endeavors to reach all classes by sending nurses to families in well-to-do circumstances, who pay from twenty-five cents to $1 a visit. This brings skilled nursing within the reach of the majority, who are really the sufferers; for, while above the reach of charity, they cannot afford to pay the high prices necessary for the exclusive services of a trained nurse.

Ostensibly, nurses are sent among the sick poor to relieve physical suffering; but a much wider range of work is being accomplished. These women, specially selected, thoroughly trained in the technique of nursing, intelligent and cultivated, possessed with the true humanitarian spirit, act as a medium of exchange between the ignorant, poor, and helpless and the intelligent, rich, and influential.

Already in many places, through the influence of these nurses, improved sanitary conditions are brought about in tenement houses, school facilities are improved in overcrowded districts, houses of prostitution have been abolished, children are sent to country homes, patients requiring hospital treatment have the way made easy for them to obtain this much needed care, food is provided for the starving, clothing and fuel reach those too proud or too ignorant to ask, and an immense amount of relief is given to suffering humanity that cannot be included under the head of nursing, to say nothing of the moral influence of such women in the homes of these people.

Formerly the masses of women presenting themselves for training in our schools were drawn largely from the class of bread-winners. No amount of money, however, could compensate the service that trained nurses are called upon to perform for the rich as well as the very poor. There must be that spirit of kindliness and charity that finds its greatest reward in the consciousness of a life spent in the relief of human misery. That spirit exists in women of all classes; and many women of leisure, with the desire to use their money and influence to the best advantage in the great work of philanthropy, are applying for admission to some of our schools. These women are submitting to the two or three years of hard physical labor, revolting sights, and rigid discipline of hospital training, that they may acquire that technical skill and peculiar knowledge of human nature which make the trained nurse so valuable an agent in solving one of the greatest social problems of the day.

Trained nurses, as a class, are practical workers, absorbed in the overwhelming duties of the day, and give little time to the consideration of future possibilities; but, to those of us who are looking far into the future of our profession, this universal recognition of the trained nurse as a necessary coadjutor in this special branch of philanthropy has a deeper meaning than would appear to the casual observer. The rapidity with which the profession has developed, the breaking down of those invisible barriers of social ostracism that we older women in the work have felt so strongly, would seem to justify us in believing that the past and present are, in reality, only the beginning of a great and influential future.

In the work of the care of the sick poor in their homes so many methods of accomplishing the same end must be deplored, if only from an economic standpoint. I believe we shall have eventually one great non-sectarian, co-operative organization in each of our large cities, all denominations working together for the relief of the suffering poor.

Along the same lines as we have shown, but on a much broader scale, the trained nurse of the future will occupy an important place in this scheme. Still acting as a medium between the rich and the poor (the word "rich" used in its broadest sense of knowledge and power as well as money) she will bring to the former a greater knowledge of the unfitness for citizenship of great masses of the foreigners who are flocking into our country. The influence embodied in such a society might so impress our legislators with the necessity for action that restricting laws, so long talked of, would be enacted, and the pauper element of the old world could no longer pour into our cities to become objects of charity.

As she goes into the homes of the working classes, the nurse has peculiar opportunities for becoming familiar with the misery and suffering caused by the sweating system. Here, again, a co-operative society would have great power, and with such knowledge of the conditions of the working classes as it would possess through its nurses, with the incentive that comes from interest in personal cases, the relations of capital and labor would reach a more equitable basis. One other horrible evil — the rear tenement — the trained nurse will help to expunge. The terrible mortality, already recognized, but for years allowed to exist, in rooms where sunlight and fresh air never enter, will at last, through her influence, become a thing of the past.

Tenement-house owners and agents, knowing the daily intelligent supervision that is being exercised by the nurse, respecting the power she represents, will not dare build or maintain human slaughter-houses under the guise of homes.

It may perhaps be said that we expect too much of the women of our profession in the future. We doubt if Florence Nightingale herself had any conception of the result, when she began the work of inducing a better class of women to undertake the nursing of hospital patients, under systematic instruction. In her professional relations the nurse will always be subordinate; but her influence will be far-reaching, and her reward will be chiefly in the feeling of satisfaction that comes "from labors well performed and days well spent."

NURSES IN "SETTLEMENT" WORK.

BY LILLIAN D. WALD, NEW YORK.

Everybody seems stirred by the social conditions that have given rise to Hull House in Chicago, the College and University Settlements in New York, and other settlements in other cities; and the hope is that these may be the means of showing the way to a better understanding of opposing classes. Considered from this point of her usefulness, the nurse's claim to know the conditions of the neighborhood in which she works comes directly from an intimate knowledge of the people in their homes. It has been the experience of two nurses, who live in a tenement house in the congested East End of New York, that this way of becoming part of the neighborhood has been successful.

Two years ago another nurse — Miss Brewster — and myself came to the College Settlement to start our plan of work. One of us had had a previous experience of the neighborhood as an "outside worker"; that is, coming from up-town to instruct a class of women. The Board of Health allowed us the privilege of wearing a badge which read, "Visiting Nurses under the Auspices of the Board of Health." The advantage of this is evident. Moral suasion failing, it insured many times the cleaning of vaults, halls, and yards. We

went at first to learn officially the condition of the interior of the tenements; but in this neighborhood, the poorest and most crowded in the world, we soon found tremendous material for nursing, for sending to hospitals, dispensaries, schools, country homes, and so forth, and followed up each want with all the energy we possessed. All the philanthropic organizations, the municipal authorities, and well-meaning individuals at a distance were ready to place their aid within easy reach of the people we encountered.

After a few months we established ourselves as residents in a tenement house in the centre of our most active work, and there more fully carried out our ideas of being "of the neighborhood." Our calls for nursing have come mainly from some near neighbor of the person needing it or from the physician. Some have come from the teachers in the different schools; but each case has been served according to the special needs of that particular case, whether it required the usual carrying out of the doctor's orders, or, where none was in attendance, procuring one, or perhaps sending the applicant to a hospital or a clinic. We have aimed not to be considered almoners or agents of a society, but yet have found it necessary frequently to give or procure assistance.

The actual nursing in the tenements, the lending of sick-room utensils and bedding, and the making of delicacies and carrying of flowers have not been different from the usual methods of district nursing.

By a judicious loan of money we have helped in the bridging over of tight places, and usually received the money again. We have tried to teach lessons of thrift and economy, and have taken charge of many a small sum of money until the bank-book has been started. We have tried not to appear "professionally good" or "professionally neighborly," but have taken many lessons to heart from our neighbors of personal service and comprehension of the limited resources of the poor.

When the hard winter of 1893–94 was upon us, we took part in the plans for giving employment, and started an undertaking which we have continued ever since. With money given for the purpose by the women of the Ethical Society, we undertook to make the most unskilled women serviceable by giving them, when they needed it, employment as charwomen in the homes of our sick, where there was no one to do the cleaning. Almost hopelessly ignorant, it was

not the simplest matter to suggest even an intelligent way to scrub. But some of these women have graduated from our hands into fairly competent workers.

It is not possible to calculate the mutual value and gains of such experiments as ours. We feel the privilege and educational value ourselves. We must recognize also that their hearty and generous acceptance of us as neighbors, and their frequent appeals to our different experience for advice, and their desire to talk things over from their individual labor problems to securing a lot in which the boys can play base ball, are but expressions of their neighborliness to us.

We are about to move from the tenement into a house near it, that an opening may be made for other nurses to share the privileges of living among the people. The house is given to us to use for the purpose of a nurses' settlement; and we hope zealous women, who have added the nurses' training to their other preparations for usefulness, will realize the privilege of joining our family.

The plan of the house is as follows: One room is to be reserved for a dispensary for small nursing cases, such as come to us in great numbers to be treated. A physician comes at regular periods for such special cases as do not require treatment in the large regular dispensaries. Classes in nursing, making of poultices, care of bed patients, elementary first aid to the injured, household hygiene, and care of children, will be held for the mothers and the girls and boys of the tenements.

Our yard, the largest play-ground on the East Side, is to be thrown open to the children, convalescents and the crippled to be favored. In it will be a sand pile, hammocks, swings, and a music-box or organ that can play the songs the children of the tenements love, and to which they dance so beautifully.

There will be an extra bath-room for regular and emergency uses, particularly needed in the preparation of many we are fond of sending into the country in the summer.

The residence part of the house is to be comfortable, and supplied with good pictures, books, and music, and whatever educational aids a home that aims to be a social centre has in any locality.

We shall consider the family most valuable when its members do not exceed six, and when the nurses represent different schools of training. The *esprit de corps* should be so pronounced that all may

work well together; yet each member should be allowed her own individuality and personality in her work, that every friend she makes may know her as such, and not, as the small boys about us would say, "a teacher in a settlement."

BLACKWELL'S ISLAND HOSPITALS.

BY LOUISE DARCHE,

SUPERINTENDENT OF TRAINING SCHOOLS, BLACKWELL'S ISLAND, NEW YORK.

The almshouse hospitals on Blackwell's Island consist principally of a number of one-storied wooden pavilions, in which are several hundreds of chronic and incurable patients, many of them suffering from the infirmities of old age alone.

Into this unattractive field of nursing the Commissioners of Charities and Correction of New York City decided in 1891 to plunge the City Training School, and to make it responsible for the care and nursing of the patients in the almshouse hospitals.

The nursing at this time was in a deplorable condition, complaints were loud and frequent from the visiting physicians and members of the State Charities Aid Association, and it was imperative that some change be made. The management of the nursing was of the old-time order; and, as a consequence, old-time results followed. The warden of the almshouse proper was also warden of the hospitals, and he was responsible for the nursing management. He engaged the nurses, and they were responsible to him in conduct and discipline. Knowing nothing practically about nursing, he placed them in the wards to work under the young internes; and, so long as no complaint was made by them, the nurses were considered satisfactory. When a difference of opinion arose between doctor and nurse, it often happened that the warden decided that the doctor was unjust and unreasonable; and the nurse stayed. The nurses received the small salary of $12 per month.

It was thought by the commissioners that the school, already responsible for the nursing of four hospitals,— two in the city and two

on the island,— might be increased, and made to extend its field of labor to cover the nursing of these additional hospitals.

On visiting the wards of the almshouse hospitals after I had been placed in charge, I found: first, that the nursing there had no educative value, and was unsuitable for training purposes; and, second, that the old and infirm inmates required a more permanent system of nursing than the training-school system could give. Besides, the school had already as many hospitals and services as could be properly attended to without changing the nurses too frequently.

Finding it thus undesirable to introduce the nurses of the Training School into the hospitals, I suggested and put in force the following plan.

A supervising nurse, a graduate of the School, was appointed, and placed in immediate charge. She was expected to supervise the work of the nurses, and to look after their dietary, bedroom accommodation, and general welfare. She was also made responsible for the matron's duties in the matter of hospital supplies of bedding and clothing. The salaries of the nurses were raised, and placed on a graded basis. An entrance examination was established to exclude all applicants who might not possess a common-school education, and satisfactory testimonials of health and character were insisted upon. A probationary period of three months was fixed for the purpose of testing and training applicants before they could be permanently appointed, and receive the higher salary.

By this system of selection and training we gradually weeded out the undesirable element, and got good and reliable nurses. We found there were many women seeking employment as nurses who were either too old to enter upon a training-school course or who were not sufficiently bright and active for nursing in acute hospitals, but whose steady, faithful, quiet ways made them very valuable as nurses for the almshouse patients. Our plan was to alternate six months' day nursing with three months of night nursing; and, in order to give the regular fortnightly day "off duty" punctually, we had two nurses constantly employed for the purpose of relieving the nurses whose day was due. We improved the dietary, and looked after the health and comfort of the nurses in every possible way.

At the end of a year, having got the system into fair working order, and where it could stand alone, the school severed its connection with this branch of its work; and the supervising nurse was left in supreme control.

With this one year's experiment in the management of almshouse hospital nursing, I am convinced that this branch of nursing need not be considered the bugbear it is, and that it may be reduced to a satisfactory and efficient system. The first point to observe is the fundamental principle of all training-school management, which is to make the nursing of the hospital a department in itself, with a duly qualified head over it. Let this head be a woman and a trained nurse, and make her responsible for the efficiency of the nursing staff. Give her due authority in the selection, management, and training of her nurses. Let there be a graded salary system, of a sufficiently high level to induce a respectable and efficient class of women to apply,— if possible, high enough at its highest grade to secure graduate trained nurses. Give the nurses a home detached from the hospital wards, where they may enjoy the ordinary comforts of home life when off duty.

I am sure that many women of ability and education would be found, under these conditions, willing to be trained in this branch of nursing; and it is possible that many graduate nurses, tired of the excitement and uncertainties of private duty, would gladly enter upon this quiet and uneventful mode of living and nursing. In either case the system, if properly managed, would be effective in providing for almshouse patients the thoroughly reliable and faithful woman as nurse whom they so peculiarly need and should have.

A FLOATING HOSPITAL.

SPECIAL RELIEF TO SICK CHILDREN IN CONNECTION WITH ST. JOHN'S GUILD.

BY MARIA S. ROBINSON, NEW YORK.

In the year 1866 the work began with the Floating Hospital. Many changes and improvements have been made during the twenty-eight years since this unique charity was started. Next month we begin our twenty-ninth year, and every day the Floating Hospital will take its load of helpless little ones out from the heat and noise of the city into the restful pure air of the sea.

If you please, take a trip with us. You must be at the dock by eight o'clock if you are to see the people come on board. There the huge boat, fitted up with the comforts and conveniences of a hospital, stands, like a great cradle, ready to bear the sick children of the poor out into the pure, wholesome atmosphere of the bay or to convey them with loving care to the Seaside Hospital at the foot of Staten Island, about three hours' distance from the city.

At eight o'clock the women begin to come on board. Each has a baby, and most of them have from one to six little children clinging to their skirts; for, in cases where the mother cannot leave any one in care of her flock, all are taken together, and God knows they all need it.

Before entering the boat, every child is examined by the attending physician, to see that no contagious disease is carried on board; and the Board of Health inspector confirms the doctor's examination before they are allowed to pass. It is very quickly done, but none are missed.

Once on board, the very sickest ones are passed on by the head nurse to the wards on either side the deck, while those needing simply the good air are directed to the upper deck. The willing hands of the deck men help the tiny feet to mount, and mother carries the sick baby.

The upper deck is one huge veranda, open on all sides. The wind blows freely over the floor swarming with women and children, walking, standing, or sitting on the benches as they please.

All day long the doctors and nurses are busy caring for the babies or teaching the mothers, for our work is educational. The feeding begins about 10 A.M., that those going to the Seaside Hospital may be sent over comfortably. In the deck below neat tables are spread to accommodate three or four hundred. This is frequently filled four times during the trip. The utmost neatness and order are here insisted upon as an example, and many of the women are helped by it to better things at home. The girls have to work very hard, but they enter into the spirit of the work, and, I think, enjoy it very much; and, certainly, they form a strong factor in the educational work.

Meantime the bath-room has been the scene of much happy excitement. The girls are bathed first. All the older ones, unless the doctor prohibits it, are put under an individual spray bath.

The nurse goes from one to another with ready word of commendation or help; and, with quick eye to see all that is going on, she has many opportunities to impart lessons in cleanliness, purity, and right living. The bath in many cases works such a transformation in the children that one would hardly know them, were it not for the grotesque costuming into which they step; for here and there you recognize a child by the clothes you remember. Indeed, the change in all at the close of the day's trip is marvellous. Most of the fretful peevishness is gone. The pain and exhaustion have yielded without a drug to the fresh air and proper food.

At about noon we rest at anchor about a mile from the Seaside Hospital. Boats are lowered, and the little sick ones are handed down by the men as tenderly as if each owned the babies, and carried on shore. The mothers are weary, but much happier than they have been for many a day; for the fresh air, food, and kindly thoughtfulness have given them hope that baby may yet live.

The hospital is surrounded on two sides by the ocean, and has a background of pure country. Here the swish of the surf drowns the cries of the sick babies on one side, and on the other the singing boughs of the huge trees lull them to sleep. Here tired out mothers find rest and refreshment while infant life is saved. Here we have doctors and trained nurses, and everything needed for the sick children. Here without a cent the mother may keep her ailing child or children as long as they need the care; and, best of all, they are taught the laws of health, and sent home better able to care for themselves and their little ones.

Three years ago the trustees decided to open a hospital for the children of the poor entirely free, and thus to continue its help throughout the year. On 61st Street, at Nos. 155 and 157, we have now a comfortable hospital that will accommodate fifty children, and it is generally full, thus proving the need and its efficiency.

The last work started by St. John's Guild, in 1893 is, I think, the most far-reaching in its beneficent results,—that of relief to sick children in their homes. Heretofore St. John's Guild stood foremost in the ranks of summer workers, but efforts were confined to the few summer months when the need is great. But the work did not reach the need of the poor children which is covered in the house to house visitation and hand to hand help which the trained nurse is able to give in the homes of sick children. Calls came in very rapidly from

doctors, dispensaries, day nurseries, schools, charity organization societies, private individuals, and from the people themselves. So rapidly did the work grow in favor that after eight months it was no longer possible for one nurse to attend to the calls, and a second nurse was engaged. Since then the work has twice demanded division of labor, and now we have four nurses.

The nurse is responsible for everything in her territory. She first answers the call; and, if a doctor is needed, she sends one, either paying him, or, as is usually possible, she sends one of the many who have volunteered their services to the Guild. The doctor's orders must be carried out perfectly. It would be much easier to do this ourselves, but the very end for which we are working would be frustrated if we did it. Of course, emergencies come up constantly in the care of our sick children that the trained hand must do; but the general nursing, as far as it is possible, we teach the mother, and see that she does it, going day by day, if necessary, and always furnishing medicines, nourishment, or clothes,— in fact, any and every thing the sick child needs.

Often it is necessary for weeks to give proper food and fuel, and in not a few cases the mother and all the other children must be fed; for while the mother cares for the sick child the entire income of the home may cease. The nurse has what money she needs, and to her judgment is left the decision as to how much shall be done. St. John's Guild has thought best to throw no restrictions about the nurse. She is sent out to do all the good she can, and she simply reports what she has done. The opportunities for helpfulness are unbounded, and I find the mothers and children eager to learn; and long after my efforts have ceased in the homes, because of returned health or sometimes from death, I find, when I meet the old cases, that not a few are better for the lessons we have tried earnestly to teach.

The work is entirely non-sectarian in character. We care for any sick child, asking no questions. With us Jew or Gentile, Roman Catholic or Protestant, it is all the same. If the child is sick, we will do our best to restore it to health and happiness, either in our Children's Hospital or through the special ministrations of the visiting nurse in the home. Our visiting nurse really forms the connecting link between all the branches of the Guild's work.

DISTRICT NURSING IN LONDON.

BY DIANA C. KIMBER, NEW YORK TRAINING SCHOOL.

District nursing in England started in Liverpool. In 1859 one trained nurse was employed to work in a single district; and so successful was this first attempt to nurse the sick poor in their own homes that in less than four years the whole of Liverpool was divided into eighteen districts, each supplied with a trained nurse. This gave the impetus to like work in London and other cities, towns, and villages.

But the work done was not always of a high order, as is proved from the fact that in 1874 the Metropolitan and National Nursery Association was founded, with a view to raising the whole standing of district nursing to a higher level. The two cardinal principles of this Association were: first, that the nurses employed should live together in small, central homes, under the direction and supervision of a trained district superintendent; and, second, that the nurses should be women of education, refinement, and gentle breeding.

In thirteen years nine such homes had been established in London, and some in country towns. In 1887 Queen Victoria devoted the balance of her Jubilee offering from the women of England — a balance amounting to £70,000 — to founding an institute for nursing the sick poor in their own homes. And this institute, known as Queen Victoria's Jubilee Institute for Nurses, has sought by affiliation to gather into one grand system all the previously existing forms of district nursing in the United Kingdom. In 1892 there were fifty-two affiliated associations in England, thirty-six in Scotland, six in Ireland, and seven in Wales.

In London the whole city is mapped out into districts, each district having its own home, superintendent, and corps of nurses. Miss Hughes, superintendent of the Central Training Home in London, told me that these districts dovetail so accurately that there is now no part of London beyond the reach of the trained district nurse.

To quote from their plan of work, "The superintendent of the

Home puts herself into communication with the parish doctors and other medical men residing within a reasonable distance; with the clergy, district visitors, sisterhoods, Bible readers, and other missionaries, also with the charity organization society and other societies working among the poor. Applications for nursing service, when received at the Home, are at once entered in a register; and if possible, the case is visited that day by the superintendent with one of her nurses. If the superintendent decides that it is a proper nursing case, she assists the nurse to put the patient, and, if necessary, also the room in nursing order. Where a case has been sent by a medical man, his orders are at once taken; and, when not, the nurse communicates with the parish doctor, and obtains his instructions in writing. . . . Every nurse visits each of her patients once daily, acute cases twice, or even much oftener if necessary, and at the same hours, making a regular round of visits, and keeping a record of each case for the superintendent. Once a fortnight or oftener the superintendent goes round with each nurse to visit every patient on her list, devoting the whole time of 'being on duty' to the nurse whose work she is superintending.

"The time the nurse stays and the attention she gives to each patient depends on the nature of the particular case. No nurse may cease to visit a patient assigned to her until the superintendent takes her name off the books."

Two summers ago I spent a whole morning with one of the Queen's Nurses, as they are called, going with her from house to house on her beat in Holborn. What impressed me was not so much the skill she showed in alleviating suffering as the tact she displayed in making the people self-helpful. She gently chided when things were not ready or in order, and told them how she would like to find them on her next visit. Yet she did not shrink from going down a whole flight of stairs with a pail to fetch water for a patient whose only attendant was a child properly too young for such work.

Nurses should be specially trained for district nursing, and I think there can be no doubt that the home life and supervision of competent superintendents is essential to the work being done in the best way in large cities.

If a central training home could be established in New York City for giving hospital trained nurses a six months' supplementary

course in this special branch of nursing, I believe it would prove, if conducted on the right principles, to be the best scheme that could be devised for promoting the advance of district nursing in this country.

CHILDREN IN HOSPITALS.

BY MISS L. W. QUINTARD, NEW HAVEN.

The helpful influence of hospitals is so evident that it seems hardly worth discussing. We who stand so close to the hospital see evidence of its great power, especially in the children's wards. The children that we receive are usually those that come from vile surroundings; but it is wonderful how quickly they respond to kind words and treatment. How much can be done for these poor little minds is often overlooked, but the nurses are so busy caring for the bodies that they do not have a great deal of time for the stunted minds. Those, however, who are interested in child-saving work can aid here. No one knows but those who are with the little ones the effect of teaching upon their minds, sick and stunted as they are. I have seen this in our own hospital, and have seen the practical results of wise instruction. For the past three years a young lady in New Haven, a trained kindergarten teacher, has come to us daily for two hours. She has given to each little patient what he could assimilate. Sometimes it is merely a story, cleverly told, bringing the child in contact with things he never heard of before. The ignorance of the children is dense. They know absolutely nothing beyond their own slums. The story told takes them into foreign lands, and it does much for them in this way. Then they make picture-books and scrap-books for the children that come to the New Haven Hospital. That teaches the children to be generous. It teaches them that there is some one besides themselves to be thought of. It takes their minds from their broken limbs, and the tedious convalescence is made attractive by this object-teaching.

But, in order to do this sort of work for children in a hospital, a woman must be trained for it. The nurses, as I say, have not the time. They are taking care of the sick bodies. While by example

we may teach them unselfishness, gentleness, and cleanliness, an outside person coming in is like a fresh breeze to these little children. Though the young lady to whom I refer has been coming so long, she is never old to them. They never grow weary of her, but they greet her just as they did three years ago. I think this could be done in all our hospitals. We have children in the hospital for months at a time, orthopædic cases that have to stay, needing constant surgical nursing; but their minds lie fallow, while we care for their bodies. I ask that more attention be paid to this department. It is hardly nursing, but it is closely allied to it: it is nursing the mind while the body is coming back to health.

A PLEA FOR TRAINED NURSES FOR ALMS-HOUSE HOSPITALS.

BY DR. G. H. M. ROWE,

MEDICAL SUPERINTENDENT OF THE BOSTON CITY HOSPITAL.

Guizot asserts that the history of civilization is the history of tendencies. In the evolution of society from barbarism the advance has been marked by clearly defined tendencies; and in the era of to-day the humanitarian impulse stands out pre-eminently. Compare the custom of man in the savage state — casting out the sick and aged to die in solitude and neglect — with the high endeavor of the skilled physician and the trained nurse, with the splendid equipment of a modern hospital, as they make a grim fight with death for a human life. Between these extremes stretches a progressive tendency of heart and brain, gradually developing into the glorious attainments of modern medical science.

It has been truly said that the death-rate of a country is a true gauge of its civilization. What a community does for its poor, its helpless, its sick, is a measure of its nobility and intelligence.

War is a horror on account of the long trail of death, disaster, and privation; but this fact is true,— that the great wars of modern times have almost invariably proved powerful factors in advancing

the scientific treatment of the sick and wounded. This is notably true of the Crimean War. Previous to that time there was the greatest apathy throughout Europe and the world in regard to hospitals and the treatment of the sick. But the horrors which followed the terrible war of the Crimea did more than anything else in arousing modern Europe to revolutionize hospital methods. The story of Florence Nightingale is too familiar to repeat; but she is an illustration of the dictum of Phillips Brooks, that "a man's power is his idea multiplied by his personal influence." Florence Nightingale, with her corps of thirty women who went to the Crimea, brought system and cleanliness into loathsome hospital barracks. The devotion of this noble band of women stirred the loving admiration of the nation; and the history of the modern hospital received a tremendous impetus, which has been constantly increasing.

The Civil War of the United States in turn gave an enormous impetus to the hospital movement in this country, mainly in the large cities and towns; and great impetus was given to improved surgery.

Primarily, hospitals were intended solely for the sick poor; but the field of its work has been steadily extended, and it now has relations with the interests of every class of the community.

The tendency of the times is such that practically all hospitals, even our small cottage hospitals, engage in the training of nurses, primarily for the good of the hospital itself.

In the early history of this movement two classes of nurses only were thought of,— nurses for hospital patients, mostly in large general hospitals, and nurses for private nursing. This has gradually broadened until now we find not only nurses in training for the hospital itself, but schools for the development of matrons of hospitals, trained women for superintendents of training schools, and for head nurses. Every training-school superintendent in these days must have two or three assistants. The surgeon now demands nurses for the operating-room, a place from which they were previously excluded, or, if allowed to be present, it was considered an indulgence. Besides trained nurses engaged in private practice in large cities, towns and even villages have their trained nurses. Most specialists must have their office nurse. The development of district nursing has been rapid; and not only large cities, but towns

of moderate size, have their regular, paid district nurse. The demand has lately arisen for village or community nurses, employed and paid by large corporations for looking after the families of the operatives, as well as emergency and other work among the better class of the village people. Many a trained nurse, retiring after graduation to her home of self-independence or even affluence, at once becomes the town oracle on all matters of personal distress or emergency, especially among the poor. Many private nurses entering well-to-do families as emergency nurses remain, and gradually make themselves so useful that they are retained, and become practically the family executive officer. In England the practice obtains that when a new colony is established, even in the wilds of Africa, a trained nurse must accompany it as indispensable to the doctor, and also to organize the hospital in the wilderness. I have named these various classes to show the extent to which trained nursing has developed, and its great field of usefulness.

As a contrast to this, the training of nurses in almshouses, not only of this, but of foreign countries, has, with few exceptions to the present time, been practically nil. According to the advance sheets of the last United States census there were in pauper almshouses in the United States in the year 1889 73,045 paupers, or 1 to every 857 of the population. In 1889 there were in New England 9,500 paupers in almshouses, both State, county, and town, or about one-eighth of all the paupers in almshouses in the United States. This was in the ratio of 1 to every 4,948. Of these States Massachusetts had 4,725, or 1 to every 474 of the population. Connecticut had 1,438, or 1 to every 519. Of the New England States the ratio of paupers to population is the largest in Massachusetts and the smallest in Rhode Island.

Three methods, or systems, exist in caring for sick paupers: the State almshouse,— with or without a hospital ward,— the county almshouse, and the city and town almshouse. As far as I am able to ascertain, Massachusetts and Rhode Island are the only States having regularly organized almshouse hospitals for the pauper sick who have no settlement in cities or towns. Seven States have workhouses for paupers, with special rooms or wards set aside for the sick,— Massachusetts, Rhode Island, Pennsylvania, Ohio, Michigan, Indiana, and South Dakota. The county system obtains generally throughout the United States, the places where paupers are

cared for having different names. In some States they are called hospitals; in Ohio, infirmaries; Indiana, asylums; and North Carolina, homes. Town almshouses are not usually found outside of New England.

The excellent system by which the State cares for the insane obviously affords better results for their proper and humane treatment than the county almshouse or the town almshouse having an occasional insane patient. What has been demonstrated for the insane is a lesson for the almshouse. But is it not evident that for the larger part of our States, before the introduction of trained nurses into almshouses can be universally established, the system of caring for the pauper sick should be reorganized, the county system abolished, and the State method introduced? No better illustration of the discrepancy in the methods of caring for the insane and the sick paupers can be given than by quoting what Miss Dorothy Dix said years ago in regard to New Hampshire: that in its well-managed asylum for the insane at Concord it stood among the foremost in the United States. But she added that the method by which the pauper sick were gathered and mistreated in the county almshouses was execrable. Something is radically wrong when it is possible to have in the same county, practically from the same population and paid for by the same tax-payers, two institutions, each for a different kind of paupers, one the insane, the other the sick poor, and the former very good, the other very bad. Why is this disparity possible? Is it not simply because one system is excellent and the other fundamentally wrong? Revolutionize the system, and then expect results that are creditable. Before trained nurses can be utilized to advantage, the pauper sick should be cared for by the State in well-constructed hospitals, suitably managed, just as is done for the insane.

Almshouses have three classes of paupers,— the able-bodied pauper, the infirm pauper, and the sick pauper. Nothing conduces so much in an almshouse to good order, good hygiene, and good morality as Arigis's classification of these three divisions by grades as well as by sex. In the average county almshouse it too often happens that the able-bodied pauper spends his time in idleness, supervised by the warden and other paid officers. The infirm pauper is looked after by such superficial inspection and such gratuitous care as the able-bodied paupers are willing to render. The sick paupers, in addi-

tion to the limited oversight of the matron or the kind and voluntary offices of the warden's wife, are also in turn left for other paupers to care for. Is not such a haphazard way of caring for the infirm — much more the sick — to be most strongly condemned? The captious public is quick and keen to criticise the least shortcoming of a trained nurse in a general hospital; and yet there exists a condition of apathy, well-nigh universal, in the interests of the pauper sick in the same cities. Why does the present ill-organized, irrational method arouse in the public no just appreciation of the need of improvement? The same ability in the trained nurse that carries into the wards of general hospitals cleanliness, system, reasonable certainty of execution, kindness, good morals, and good nursing, could and would, under proper conditions, make its influence felt in colonies of paupers.

If accurate data were at command, a summary of what has been accomplished in this country for a higher grade in the method of caring for the sick would show that comparatively small progress has been made in proportion to the need. Fortunately, however, we have sufficient example to prove that the introduction of systematic, trained nursing enhances the value of the treatment of the pauper sick. I might refer with much satisfaction to the great progress that has been made in the care of the chronic and pauper sick in the city of Philadelphia by the introduction of trained nursing into the Philadelphia Hospital, formerly known as the Blockley Almshouse. Or, again, to the improved methods used for the chronic and infirm sick in the Charity Hospital on Blackwell's Island, under the able and intelligent supervision of Miss Darche. I fancy, however, that neither Miss Smith nor Miss Darche is willing to allow her institution to be ranked as an almshouse hospital at the present time, though it might practically have been so once.

Perhaps the most conspicuous and notable example of the improvement rendered to the pauper sick by trained nursing is in the State Almshouse at Tewksbury, Mass. Fifteen years ago the reputation of this institution was unsavory and full of suspicion. Indeed, enough was known above the line of suspicion to deserve condemnation. The first move toward a better condition was the appointment of a medical superintendent. From that time steady improvement has been made; and I am sure, from the trend of affairs shown there, it has not yet reached its height. With an enlarge-

ment and an improvement of its medical staff, the construction of new and modern buildings built upon designs equal to good general hospitals, and later the introduction of a training school for nurses, this hospital, as far as I am able to ascertain, has obtained the highest rank of any strictly almshouse hospital in this country. The introduction of trained nurses has been also followed by applicants of a different and higher class of women for nurses; and, although on account of the limitation of the class of diseases nurses in this hospital do not have the opportunities of seeing acute diseases which are enjoyed by the nurses of general hospitals in large communities, they obtain ample experience to be called trained nurses. But this system also furnishes an improved condition in the nursing of the patients themselves, which is the pivot of my argument.

In studying questions of sociology, we very naturally turn to see what our friends have done in England; and a survey of the condition of the Poor-law Infirmaries is instructive.

In 1889 two English women had a quarrel. This incident in itself need not excite any comment; but, as they happened to be matrons of hospitals, the quarrel started a long sequence of events. The friends of the two disputants took sides; and the conflict became intensely partisan, until the hospital and nursing worlds of England were rent in twain. The medical profession soon took it up, then the medical journals, and later the lay press teemed with comments. Finally, the matter waxed so strong that neither the friends, the medical profession, nor the press could come to just conclusions; and it finally required the decision of Parliament. In July, 1891, a Select Committee of the House of Lords was appointed to investigate all hospitals, provident and other public dispensaries, and charitable institutions for the care and treatment of the sick poor within the Metropolitan area. This committee continued its sessions for two years, and its report fills two large quarto volumes of 1,529 pages. The final conclusions of this Select Committee were made the following year, 1892, in a quarto volume of 101 pages; and these three volumes, to the hospital worker, make what Horace Greeley called "mighty interesting reading."

Briefly, the report of this committee, on the whole, was more than favorable to the condition of the general hospitals of London. Their strictures were upon the abuse of private special hospitals and the

Poor-law Infirmaries and workhouses. Confining our comments to the latter, we would briefly say that there were in London twenty-four Poor-law Infirmaries, containing 12,445 beds. In nearly every case the infirmaries which contained what we call pauper sick were in buildings separate from the workhouse. This is worth remembering, it being the exception rather than the rule in the United States. The judgment of the committee was that the poorest class treated in these Poor-law Infirmaries is, in fact, much better provided for than the poor just above the pauper class, for whom, when they are suffering from chronic or incurable complaints, no hospital accommodation is provided except in charitable institutions. The committee criticised the general management of the workhouse infirmaries, because the professional care of the sick was left to a superintendent with two or three assistants, the infirmaries oftentimes having from five to six hundred patients. It was clearly pointed out that the responsibility of the medical superintendent for the general control of the whole establishment in all its branches was incompatible with the proper discharge of his duties as a doctor, and it was suggested that the professional care of the sick should be given to a medical staff. The committee further criticised the crowded condition of these infirmaries.

It would seem that the cost of these establishments was out of proportion to the professional and nursing care received by the patients. The committee reported that the average annual cost was £30 and 17*s.*, or about $3.56 per capita per week. The average weekly cost of all paupers treated at the Tewksbury Almshouse was $1.91 per week, and at the State Farm at Bridgewater $1.88 per week. These last two figures obviously count the cost of all classes of patients. The average weekly cost per capita of the six lunatic hospitals in Massachusetts is $3.33, $3.48, $3.48, $3.37, $3.65, respectively, and for the chronic insane at the Worcester Asylum $3.04 per week.

I doubt if any one even casually familiar with the care of the insane in State hospitals in Massachusetts and the Poor-law Infirmaries in England could for a moment question the superiority of the former. The excessive cost is certainly a damaging evidence against the Poor-law Infirmaries.

Leaving out other interesting points for want of time, what can be said of the nursing? The Committee of the House of Lords said:

"Nursing reform has made great advances in the Poor-law Infirmaries, as well as elsewhere; and the employment of unskilled pauper nurses, which used to be the rule, has now become a rare exception, though they are to be found in the sick-wards of the workhouses, where a large proportion of the less severe cases are retained." Many of the infirmary nurses have gone through a regular hospital training. About one-half of the matrons, however, are women who are not regularly trained nurses; and the appointments are made by the guardians at their own discretion. High praise was paid to the efficiency of the nursing staff in some of the new infirmaries. Dr. Bridges, medical inspector of the Local Government Board, estimated that about one-fifth of the nurses employed were trained graduates. The whole number of nurses in infirmaries was said to be 888, or about one to every ten patients. This proportion is quite as large as it was in some of the general hospitals in the United States fifteen years ago. The wages paid to infirmary nurses was as high as £30 a year, or about $12.50 a month. Miss Louise Twining, who is favorably known even on this side of the water, is authority for the statement that there appeared to be no difficulty in getting a sufficient supply of good material for nurses. In 1891 the parish of Marylebone Infirmary gave its pupils a regular three years' course of training, and other infirmaries have since followed its example.

In the course of this inquiry it was shown through witnesses that the wards of the workhouses, as a rule, as well as the nursing, were of an inferior character, except in the small institutions, where the character of the nursing was in a general way equal to many of the general hospitals. I am informed on credible authority that by reason of this report of the Committee of the House of Lords great improvement has been made in the quality of the nursing, and that the criticisms and recommendations made by the Committee of the House of Lords have had much force and have worked great good among the pauper sick under charge of the various parish infirmaries in London. The same general advancement has been made in Birmingham, Manchester, Leeds, Liverpool, and other urban districts of England. Indeed, the history of almshouse nursing would be quite incomplete without mention of the pioneer work of Miss Agnes E. Jones, who instituted great reform in the workhouse at Liverpool, which is one of the largest in England. In 1863, only

three years later than Florence Nightingale's inception of the school for the training of nurses, the medical world was stirred by a commission of the *Lancet* appointed to investigate the nursing of the sick poor in infirmaries. Without entering into the details, it is sufficient to say that the report of this commission led to many reforms, although slight in proportion to the crying need. It was at this time that Miss Agnes Jones entered the workhouse at Liverpool, and the result of her endeavor is well stated by another: "In less than three years she had reduced one of the most disorderly hospital populations in the world to something like Christian discipline, such as the police themselves wondered at. She had led, so as to be of one mind and heart with her, upwards of fifty nurses and probationers. She had converted the Poor-law Board to her views, two of whom bore witness to this effect. She had disarmed all opposition and all sectarian zealotism, so that Roman Catholic, High Church, and Low Church, all literally rose up and called her blessed. Miss Jones, after a brief period of three years, died of typhus fever, a martyr to the cause to which she had given such distinguished work."

Time does not warrant further elaboration of this subject. The splendid progress made in the care of the sick in our general hospitals, and the work of the training schools in sending out women well equipped for the various branches of philanthropy, need no eulogy before this Conference. The advance is sounded that can never know retreat. The next development is to put the medical care and nursing of the sick poor in our almshouses on the same rational, wholesome basis that obtains in general hospitals. There is many an American Agnes Jones whose love of humanity will gladly impel her devoted service among the afflicted, unfortunate dependants in our almshouses.

What of the result? The condition of the sick poor will be ameliorated, a larger number restored to wage-earning, the mortality reduced, and the tendency to pauperism lessened.

XIII.

Medical Charity.

PROVIDENT MEDICAL ASSOCIATIONS.

BY W. H. PRESCOTT, M.D.

The whole question of the administration of the medical charities of a large city is one for which a solution has long been sought. For years most physicians and many philanthropists have viewed with alarm the rapid growth of hospitals and dispensaries, feeling that the tendency was toward a medical pauperization of the people. Each large dispensary or out-patient department has felt the competition, and has put forward all its energies to increase its clientèle without paying any regard to the kind of people attracted. It is, however, easier to see the faults of the system than to suggest a remedy at all satisfactory.

In what may be called the regular charity work of a city a great advance was made when the Associated Charities was started, with its system and means; but the application of this principle to the medical charities does not seem practicable or advisable. Undoubtedly, some good might be done if each out-patient department or dispensary could keep a person at the entrance to inquire into the civil condition of each applicant for relief; but wrong addresses and lies as to the financial condition render most work of this kind unsatisfactory. It has been tried many times, but usually has been abandoned as of little use. The attempt has also been made to influence the patients to give a little something for their treatment by establishing boxes in the different rooms, but it was never a success. So it is with most of the attempts to provide a remedy.

The applicants for relief may be divided into three classes,— the "rounders," those able to pay, and the needy poor.

No one who has had any experience in different hospitals and dispensaries can have failed to notice the large number who go from one clinic to another, seemingly always needing and of course always

receiving treatment. A black list should be kept of these medical vagrants, and no treatment should be furnished.

There are two objections to this: first, the objection already made, that it is so difficult to keep track of such cases, when disguises, wrong addresses, and false names are so common; and, second, it may happen that a rounder may be really sick and need treatment. This danger was well illustrated in the following case which occurred when I was assistant superintendent of the Boston City Hospital. A man was brought to the hospital in the police ambulance, having been found in a doorway, who complained of severe pain in the abdomen. Pulse and temperature normal. He proved to be a man whom I had admitted many times for what turned out to be alcoholism. The symptoms were always the same. I should have sent him to the almshouse — which is on an island in the harbor — to sober off, had it not been that it was too late for the ambulance to catch the boat. I agreed to keep him. In thirty-six hours he was dead of acute hemorrhagic pancreatitis. Although a trip to the island would not have influenced his case in any way, I was glad the boat had gone.

Many of those well able to pay give wrong addresses or feel that free medical treatment is their right at any of the dispensaries, especially if it be a city institution. Many instances are on record where patients with hundreds and even thousands of dollars on their person have come for treatment to a free hospital.

Another source of danger is to be found in the rapid increase of rooms for specialists. Each specialist naturally wants to see as many cases as he can, and therefore does not pay much attention to the class of patients who come to see him; and, if he were particular, it is quite a delicate question for him to solve how best to find out whether a patient can afford to pay or not. Clothes are of little help in this respect, for sometimes good clothes are a relic of former wealth or a gift from rich relations.

Of all the means for limiting the amount of free medical attendance, and one which has been exciting a good deal of interest of late, the provident medical associations have been the most successful.

These also have their weakness; but it seems to me that the weakness is not inherent in the associations, but come from a misconception of their needs and the causes which have led to their establishment.

They have been in existence for over twenty-five years, and have increased wonderfully in size and influence; but herein lies their great danger,— the desire to use them as a means to make money. As soon as any charity begins to work not for charity, but to make money, it has lost its bearings, and had better stop.

In 1892 a Co-operative Medical Association was established under the direction of Mr. Robert Treat Paine, in connection with and for the benefit of the members of the Wells Memorial Institute. Only those belonging to the Institute could become members. The dues for the first month went to the Institute to help pay the running expenses. All the other dues went to the physician. During the first month no medical attendance was furnished (this rule was made to prevent a person joining after being taken ill). The physician was expected to be at the Institute every week-day between twelve and one, when he could be consulted. If for any reason a member could not call at this time, he could consult the physician at his office. In case of severe sickness the physician would make calls at a member's house. This rule was modified so as to apply to members living within a certain radius, as some lived in the neighboring towns. The fees were 25 cents a month for each man or woman, 42 cents for man and wife, and 59 cents for man, wife, and children.

There are two main dangers in an association of this kind. One, that the physician will be lax in attendance, careless of the rights of the members, and indifferent to their needs. This cannot hold good if the physician is charitable, and not mercenary. The other, that the members will have no charity for the rights of the physician, and show it by calling upon him too frequently or by sending for him unnecessarily. Neither of these dangers is necessary. A true physician will always give all the skill and kindness of which he is capable, and the people who join the associations are not those who would put any one in whom they had confidence to any unnecessary trouble.

The Co-operative Medical Association of the Wells Memorial Institute has been working now over two years; and, while its growth has not been great, it has demonstrated beyond a doubt that an association of this kind can live without the dangers becoming materialized, and must give to its members a feeling of security to know that, if sickness comes, they have already paid their physician's bill.

XIV.

The Tramp Problem.

THE TRAMP PROBLEM: WHAT IT IS AND WHAT TO DO WITH IT.

BY J. J. M'COOK.

Three years ago, using the Massachusetts semi-annual census for 1890 and my own statistical studies of the winter of 1890–91 as a basis,* I estimated the number of tramps in the United States at 45,845, and their direct cost at over nine millions.

Using the same basis,† the number in January, 1895, was 85,768, and their cost over seventeen millions.

Two elements in the seriousness of our problem are here revealed,— the largeness of the numbers and the largeness of the increase. The first speaks for itself. 86,000 men is a very big army to set loose foraging upon a country, even though the country be so big and young and vigorous as our own. And seventeen millions is a great deal of money for even a rich people to spend, if they can help it.

As for the second, let us look at it carefully for a moment. The phenomena of increase may possibly give us some hint worth having for the solution of the problem.

I have before me, through the kindness of Dr. Prentiss, deputy inspector of institutions for the Massachusetts State Board of Lunacy and Charity, the semi-annual returns of tramps in that State from Sept. 30, 1870, to March 31, 1895. As my eye runs down the column of daily averages, it is at once arrested by two dates, 1873

* In 1890 mean daily population in public lodging places, 427.3. Proportion between public lodging places of 1,349 tramps and all lodging methods, 35.8. Proportion between population of Massachusetts and of the United States, 29.97.

† July 1, 1894, 307; Jan. 1, 1895, 1,275; mean, 791. Almost the same result is obtained from the totals from towns for the year ending March 31, 1895. This is 282,585 = 774.2 daily.

and 1893. After each of these the figures leap forward by almost their own length. The 241 of 1873 is turned into the 422 of 1874. The 378 of 1893 is turned into the 621 of 1894. In the one there is an advance of 75.1 per cent., in the other of 63.9. Almost identical gains, and no such gains in all the twenty-six years besides!

Did anything in particular happen in 1873 and in 1893 to throw light on the situation? Yes, in the autumn of 1893 the great financial crash, in the spring of 1893 the great business depression.

But what has the tramp in common with finances, business, industry? Much and in many ways.

In the first place the average tramp is originally a laborer, and a skilled one.* He has a trade generally; and in any case he began by working, and he works more or less now. He does not look it. Sometimes, when he is with friends or confidants, he delights in announcing that he has not done a stroke of work for fifteen or twenty years. A fellow who as thoroughly deserves the title of confirmed tramp as any I know — and I know many — has boasted often, has boasted to me, that he has not lifted his hand to work for fifteen years. But this was false; and, on my proving it, he evaded the point by saying, "Oh, I don't call that work: I meant a steady job." And as to that I believe him. I am more and more satisfied that my statistics were fairly representative when they made the number so small of those who never work.

The tramp is even an unusually intelligent and skilled mechanic in many instances. I have inspected a remarkably handsome refrigerator made by a West Hartford reservoir "bum" for a Hartford saloon-keeper, made in a month, made with a few rude tools in a barn. It is valued by a cabinet-maker at $160. It cost besides the material a month's work at a dollar a day and board. And the $24 was drunk up, largely, no doubt, at the employer's saloon; and the man had disappeared in two or three days. I have just been talking with the manager of one of our largest foundries. The tramp moulder, he says, is the best workman he has. He comes every year or every two years, sometimes in summer, sometimes in winter, the same man year after year. Then some day he is gone until the return of the season brings him back. And the testimony from several other trades is to the same effect.

Thus, for the uses of this paper, I have been talking with the

* *Vide* my statistical inquiry, *Forum*, etc.

managers of twelve of our principal employers of labor in Hartford, having on their rolls 4,750 persons, for the most part skilled hands. Eight of them have or have had drinking men and tramps in their employ. Three of them, representing 1,200 hands, say this class of men are at least up to the average in cleverness and skill. Five of them, representing 2,800 hands, say they are among their very best men.

Now, occasionally, these employees are so valuable that they are kept through everything, or, if discharged from time to time, taken on again. But, when business falls off and the pay-roll must be cut down, the average drinker is first to be dropped; then the indifferent or negligent workman; then the good single men; and, last of all, sober and industrious married men. This, I find, is the uniform custom in all of these establishments; and, when times brighten and orders increase, men are taken on again exactly in the reverse order,— married men, good single men, ordinary workmen, drinking men.

Here, then, is, as I believe, a key to the situation as revealed in those curious forward leaps of vagabondage after 1873 and 1893. Men had to be discharged. Drinkers went first, single men afterwards, married men last of all. But the tramp is generally a drunkard, self-confessed, and an unmarried man by his own admission. So he was the first to be dismissed when the crash came, and the last to be taken back when the skies brightened.

This, however, is not the whole of the case. If there were no further complication of the problem, we should find the figures going back again promptly with the return of good times. And such is not the case. The rise in 1874 was followed in 1875 by a further rise of 31.4 per cent. The flood had not yet reached its height. But in 1876 there was still a further rise, though slight,— 3.6; and in the following year the fall was only 10 per cent., which was far more than compensated by the rise in 1878.

Similarly, twenty years later, in 1895, we find a rise of 24.7 per cent. above the mark of 1894. Note the resemblances. In 1874 a rise of 75 per cent., in 1894 of 63.9; in 1875 a rise of 31.4 per cent., in 1895 of 24.7. Further in the comparison we cannot go; but, if the likeness is to hold, we shall witness a gain in 1896 of not far from 3 per cent., corresponding to that of 1876, and then the waters will begin to subside.

But, again, if the likeness is to hold, they will never fall back to their former level; and in any event, if human nature repeats itself, they will reach the old level only to make another and a stronger start later on.

Why is this? Why does not reviving business, why does not business activity, far outrunning the growth of population, bring back the tramp to steady industry?

For the same reason, I think, that the horse, which has once run away, runs away again when he gets the chance. It is against nature for the horse to work in harness. He does it, however, because, while he is still young and green, the cleverer animal, man, convinces him that man is the stronger. When the horse discovers the contrary, it is all over with his domesticity. He is ruined as a servant.

Similarly, the average man grows up to live a regular life and to work as a part of it. Somebody began it, of course, long ago with most of us; and from the time we know anything we are taught to believe that there is a necessary relation between doing our daily tasks, eating our regular meals, going to bed in a fixed place, rising at a prearranged hour, wearing a certain kind of clothes,— that there is between all this and being "good" an unalterable relationship, as also between being good and being happy. Religion gives its awful sanction to this theory; habit fortifies it; successive generations of what we call civilization even create an instinct which makes us think, or at least say, we like it,— when suddenly to one of us comes the discovery that he can stop all this, and yet live,— nay, grow fat, perhaps, and vigorous and strong; drop worry and responsibility in health, have the best of care when sick, go everywhere, see everything, choose his own company, read the newspapers, vote often, commune with nature, live and die the lord of creation again.

And, when that discovery comes, it is apt to be fatal. There are to many, it is true, complete returns to orderly life. The old habit overcomes revived nature,— the horse never runs away again. But to many others, apparently to most, it is all over with the artificial man. The original savage resumes its sway. Nature is triumphant.

"There are just two men that are really happy in this world," said an accomplished tramp to me. "The one is the millionaire: the

other is the bum." This fellow's chief concern seemed to be to avoid indigestion, and to that end he carried proper remedies always with him. And certain parts of the country he objected to mainly on account of the indigestibleness of the food commonly tendered to wayfarers; namely, "bacon so fat you can fairly see it tremble and coarse, yellow corn bread."

Another, with whom I have had a correspondence of nearly a year and a half, receiving sometimes letters fifty pages long, once wrote me: "The country looks beautiful in its spring suit, and the birds sing sweetly and nature seems to have taken life anew. I often in daytime, nice days, get into the woods in some secluded spot, lay down in the shade of some friendly tree, and sleep from two to three hours, sometimes longer. And, oh! such sweet sleep, such nice dreams. If I were where I dream I was sometimes, I would be happy! I often think God intended man to live as the Indians use to,— all the land common property. What happy times if we was all in the woods together!" It is true he does not state, any more than some of the rest of our dreamers, just what advantage would accrue from having the land "common property" to people like himself. But we should be "in the woods," anyhow; and perhaps that would compensate for all the rest!

This man was a brave soldier during the war, and has been a wanderer ever since. I greatly wonder that so few of our soldiers ended that way! He has once been taken from the road into a cotton-mill, where he was promoted to the charge of a room, so his employer informs me. He has settled down once since I formed his acquaintance, and established himself in a shop, advertising and sending me his printed card. Having defaulted two months' rent, he was found dead drunk by his landlord on the floor of his tenement. He took to the road again; and, as I last heard from him, he was negotiating, I dare say successfully, for a superintendency, at a comfortable salary, in a Southern factory. He has almost had time to go there, lose his place, and bob up again on the Pacific Coast a "mush fake" once more.

Apropos to this love of nature: in the "Bull" barn, known to thousands of tramps all over the United States as a capacious, comfortable, and hospitable lodging-place, where the only drawback is an occasional nocturnal raid by the police,— one of which, accompanied by two photographers, I myself lately attended,— I found lying on the hay a recent copy of *Outing!*

And, as bearing on this tendency to return to nature, I find it is remarked by all but one, of several observers, as surviving among our converted aborigines. When the season of the year comes that was formerly associated with the most striking and joyous features of their savage life, whether it be spring or fall, they tend to break away. And even the little dark-skinned boys and girls of the second generation are found flattening their noses against the window-panes, until they, too, one by one disappear, and the school is left empty.

I have said that the most striking thing in this column of figures which we are studying is the leap at 1874 and 1894. But, as my eye moves down the page, I notice two other, this time highly contrasted, numbers. After the 1873 flood has begun to subside, as already noted, and a drop of 10 per cent. has been recorded, there is a sudden forward dash of over a third. The daily average of 522.4 develops into 719. And this is not followed, as in the other case, by a steady rise, but by an immediate fall to almost the level of the previous year.* What may this mean? The date will perhaps enlighten us. It was 1878. That was the year of the great strikes and railroad riots. Massachusetts was not the seat of war,—it will be remembered that it became virtual war in some places,—but so closely are we now bound together by railways that Massachusetts felt it, doubtless, and manifested her sensitiveness in this fashion. That a different class of men from the ordinary tramp formed the greater part of the sudden gain that year I have no means of proving. But I conjecture it. Strikers can generally take care of themselves for a considerable time, and do not need to take to the road. When "beaten," however, they must needs travel. Though being, largely, as I judge, not drunkards, and very frequently married, they more commonly tend to get back into regular employment. Still, I have occasionally found men who showed all the characteristics of confirmed tramps with their union tickets paid up to date. "Oh, yes," said one who was begging at my back door, "I'd take to pick and shovel rather than let that run out."

The other of the two contrasted numbers occurs in 1880. In that year the daily average of tramps in Massachusetts was 461. In 1881 it was 105.2,—a loss of 77.2 per cent. How account for this? There had been no financial boom that year, nor any wave of moral

* To 538.6 = 25.1 per cent. loss.

regeneration to justify such a change. Nor had gold been discovered in the neighboring States. What has become of the missing 356 and of the 918 more whom they must have represented,*— 1,274 lost suddenly from their daily, rather nightly, rounds! And can it be that they have carried with them that still greater army for which they stand? Have 38,196 tramps died or gone back to industry? Not at all: none of these things.

What, then, has happened? for something must have happened!

I turn to my parcel of abstracts of tramp laws, — Massachusetts, 1880. For the first time tramps are defined here. Penalty, House of Correction, one to five years; State workhouse, one to three years. Constables, police officers, sheriff, or deputy sheriff, may arrest without warrant. Mayors of cities and selectmen shall appoint special police officers to make such arrests in their respective cities and towns. Truly, a formidable statute. What wonder the 1,217 fled to the next State.

But did they stay? Ah, no! the very next year the head of the column appears again. First a timid 24.9 per cent., followed by a bolder 48, and that by a valiant 79, and that by a still more resolute 123 per cent. Then, just as when a great flood has passed the banks, and made for itself new boundaries miles beyond, the rise becomes sluggish notwithstanding all the rain in the world, so here in 1886 there is only an addition of 5 per cent. more; and at 128 per cent. increase there is a pause and a loss.

This retardation, with subsequent loss, seems to be synchronous with further legislation, providing a possible term of two years with indeterminate sentence in the State Reformatory. It was not large, however, nor for long; and, after various fluctuations, the daily average of 1886 is exactly duplicated in 1893, when everything was ready for that final bound which carried the State to the present unprecedentedly high figures.

Here, then, in the light of these statistics — the best, the only ones we have — is the problem. Look at it. Industry liable to fluctuation, taking on, when it must, men of all sorts; dropping, when business becomes slack, first drunkards, next single men, last of all married men. A class of men employed by industry, of at least average ability and skill, but mostly hard drinkers, nearly all single. These men, when dropped, ascertaining that they can live

* Proportion as above.

and be fairly happy without work. When business revives, the same men left out until the last, partly through the determination of industry to use their kind only when it must, partly through their loss of the habit and disposition to consecutive labor. To this great army a contingent added from the ranks of strikers and of sick persons who, during enforced idleness, have made the fatal discovery of the others that living and labor are not interchangeable terms. The law, stepping in, scatters this host, but neither destroys nor subjugates nor converts it. It is soon back again with firmer tread and more confident air, moving, apparently, to newer and more dazzling victories.

Does this statement of the problem suggest anything in the way of answering the question, What to do with it?

Doubtless, though, alas! a great part of the answer will seem much as if one were to say, "Do away with evil."

In the order of their importance they are these: —

1. Stop letting people get drunk when they like. I have said the average tramp was a drunkard. The amount they drink is surprising. I know one who was in the habit of spending from $1 to $1.50 a day in a single saloon whenever he was in Hartford; and he comes and goes all the time. The keeper of the saloon is authority for this. In the same saloon, with my own eyes, I saw ten fellows line up for drink five times within forty minutes; and the bar-keeper told me the next day that their total score for the evening there was eight rounds, all ale, with half a gallon of whiskey bought in the bulk.

Another fellow of this same sort counted up thirteen gins and eight ales in one day. I saw him drink part of them. I caught him, and photographed him drinking stale beer one afternoon. The previous night he had spent $1.80 in gin, including three pint bottles; and that morning he and three companions had drunk between them nearly six gallons of stale beer. He is a "fake." He confessed himself to be a "crook," in a friendly talk one night in the office of a saloon; and within a few days he was in jail for theft. I met him on the street shortly after his term was up, at his old business. He "had been away to Springfield and Worcester faking," he said, until my smile brought him to terms. And within ten days thereafter the police were after him for another theft.

At an open-air feast, which I witnessed a few weeks ago, there

were certainly three gallons of drink to every one of soup; and before it was over two were lying dead drunk, two were so drunk as to be barely able to move and talk, and two or three others were intoxicated.

Can we stop this? Can we reduce it? No really earnest answer to these questions seems to me to be cared for by most of our own communities. And yet until something is done in this direction there is really no use in talking about the thing at all.

2. Don't let people make the fatal discovery I have alluded to that they can live without work. By living I mean eating, sleeping, drinking. This implies, of course, that everybody must stop giving food, clothes, and money to the casual beggar unless he does an amount of work for it, which should always be in excess of that which a man regularly employed in the same occupation has to do to get the same accommodations. I fear some lodging-houses, otherwise careful, overlook this word "excess."

Very few people would be tempted to give literal lodging. Its equivalent, however, is more dangerous. A nickel for night's lodging or for a sandwich is a very seductive piece of benevolence,— so cheap and so easy. I have tried it several times, following the parties afterward. In one instance twenty-seven houses were visited after my own; and after two and a half hours' chase, in which my son, who acted for me, was himself successfully "worked" for five cents, the journey ended in a saloon. A notice in the papers brought out six replies from persons who had apparently been approached previous to the fellow's discovery of me. On another occasion two men were followed for an hour, and seen to enter four houses, two saloons, one restaurant, and a place labelled "Baths." I have maps of both these tracks, and curious enough they are. In five other instances, covering seven persons, I have myself done the following; and in every case the end was a saloon. In still another, in New York City, I promised to give the fifteen cents wanted for a lodging, anyhow, and then, with the coins between my finger-tips, begged my friend to tell me on the honor of a gentleman what he was going to do with them. "Well, I guess ten of it'll go for two beers for my butty and myself," was the plainly honest reply. And the other five? "I guess I'll get a paper of tobacco with that." And where will you sleep? "No trouble about that," was the cheery rejoinder.

Of course, when I tell people to stop giving food, I know that al-

most nobody will heed me. I have not even reached that point of perfection myself. And much the same is true concerning the seductive nickel. But this advice is "science" all the same. People professedly and deliberately charitable, however, and charitable societies, above all, should bear in mind the importance of not letting men discover that they can have all they need, especially of drinkables, without work.

Obviously, it will do no permanent good to apply the labor test in any one locality when others neglect it.

3. Make good laws, and enforce them. The Massachusetts law seems to me to be an excellent one; and we are trying to get something on the same line passed by the Connecticut General Assembly, with good prospect of success.* That includes tramps under the provisions of the reformatory system, with long term — we propose five years as a maximum — and indeterminate sentence. The tramp is, at worst, a criminal, a felon. And, if reformation be proposed for felons under the law, why not for him? It is true he is generally a heavy drinker; but so is the average felon. The difficulties of reformation are the greater on this account. But, if we undertake them with good heart in the one case, why not in the other? I have seen a letter from a man for five years industrious and exemplary, in which he complained very bitterly of the discrimination made in prisons against the tramp, as being evidently esteemed worse than the worst criminal. There is something in this. Give the tramp a chance. I know him very well, and have generally found him a pleasant, approachable fellow; and I should rather take my chances of reforming him, with purely civil and secular measures, than the ordinary felon.

4. I put together the next class of measures, warning you that you will smile when you hear, as I do while I write them. Abolish industrial booms, financial crises, business slumps, hard times. Encourage marriage. How? do you ask. Really, I don't know. Some people might even be ill-natured enough to suggest that, if the last, about marriage, could be carried out, it would only make matters worse, because then there would be no single men to dismiss when hard times came — an argument which would also hold against abolishing drunkards. But note, please, I want my Utopia all in a lump. We want married men enough, and not too many; and, with

* The law has since passed the General Assembly.

that, we want financial boom just enough, but, so to speak, not too boomy! As for drunkards, there seems no great danger but that we shall always have enough of them and to spare.

5. Help the railroads. You and they must find out how to stop this universal and unlimited train-jumping, which is so unique and picturesque in American tramping, and so very conducive to its indefinite perpetuation and extension. It is true that the science of tramp treatment has thus far hardly got further than "move on," "keep moving." But moving by rail, however dangerous and dusty some of it may be, is on the average fairly comfortable and satisfactory. One fellow tells me, indeed, he once fell asleep hugging the brake rod, on the bunters between two cars — which was not safe. And a conductor tells me he once took a fellow from the pilot of the engine, where he was found fast asleep and dead drunk, with a reserve quart of gin in his pocket, and his two legs so tightly twined about the little flag-stick that they were with difficulty untangled. That looks unsafe, too. But the "gondola" — the open freight car — and the "Pullman side door" — the box car — are not so very disagreeable. And they generally arrive safely. With "regulations" universally staring them in the face, it is curious how tolerant most crews are of their uninvited passengers. But, in truth, it would not be an attractive task for a brakeman to descend from the roof of a car to eject two resolute, strong men from the narrow platform below. But, if in some way the trains could be cleared of them, the life would lose much of its charm, and the burden of supporting the wanderers would be to such extent spread and equalized as to make it more likely that public opinion would be aroused to secure a remedy. The tramp problem is complicated and difficult enough in Europe; but at least they have no train-jumping there.

6. I will speak now for a moment of moral measures. The general view of the subject closes, as we have seen, with physical means. The one break is where the Reformatory has been brought in, as in Massachusetts, but hardly enforced there. The Elmira Reformatory does not pretend to reach tramps, though I am very glad to find that Mr. Brockway is more than pleased at our proposed experiment with reformatory treatment of them in Connecticut; and my efforts in behalf of this movement would sufficiently show how greatly I prize reformatory effort from the purely secular side. There can be no doubt of the great efficacy of a system which

segregates for a year or more, which allows nature to throw off the alcoholic degeneration of nerve tissue, which stimulates by promotion, by reward and punishment carefully meted out, which opens up new visions to the mind, which teaches the hand new cunning or brings back skill long forgotten, which seeks to restore the habit of voluntary industry by means of the enforced habit of involuntary industry. It is good, and its value is demonstrable.

The question is whether there is anything else which, alone or in combination with this, may rank as "scientific." I think there is. It is very likely I should not attach all the importance to it that some of its friends would claim. But it does show results,—effects, having a logical relation with their causes; and as such it merits the title I have given it.

From one such institution it is reported to me that there are 206 persons of the thousands who have come under its influence during the past six years who show the following record: 24 keeping straight for 5 years or over; 22 from $4\frac{1}{2}$ to 5 years; 15 from 4 to $4\frac{1}{2}$ years; 22 from $3\frac{1}{2}$ to 4 years; 26 from 3 to $3\frac{1}{2}$ years; 18 from $2\frac{1}{2}$ to 3 years; 21 from 2 to $2\frac{1}{2}$ years; 26 from $1\frac{1}{2}$ to 2 years; 32 from 1 to $1\frac{1}{2}$ years.

It is true the whole number under treatment was very great, and the percentage of success is small. But, though it may be a legitimate question whether larger results might not have been secured by the same expenditure of money and time under other methods, and whether, by modifications in the system, some inconvenient accompaniments and after-effects might not have been avoided, in a matter of this kind we can surely pardon much where such results are shown, however obtained. It is only necessary to multiply 206 by $200 to see that these persons would have probably cost the community more in taxes for their arrest and support than the whole expense of the institution to its voluntary patrons has been. Even with heavy discount for error or over-sanguineness, this might still be true.

How do men from this establishment fare among the employers of labor?

One merchant has had seven of them for permanent places as salesmen, porter, clerks, etc.,—four of whom I should call downright bums,—and six of them for temporary jobs. "None have ever disappointed me," he says; and he always sends there when he wants a man.

One other establishment has found them part good, part bad. A third has had a number, and thinks none of them have gone back. Another has had one whom it keeps, though he is unsatisfactory.

On the other hand, two establishments have tried in all from eighteen to twenty-seven of these men, and find them so unsatisfactory that they would regard a recommendation from that source a positive disqualification.

This is about as might have been expected,— results neither wholly good nor wholly bad, from the cold, statistical standpoint.

The agency chiefly relied upon in this institution is an appeal to the immaterial part,— to rewards and punishments that are moral rather than physical. And if any merely scientific observer were to visit it, or, say, the Bleeker Street Industrial Home in New York, he would certainly be very curiously struck by the atmosphere of both. Supernatural causes and machinery and processes and results are as much taken for granted, are as much a part of the very air they breathe, as education and drill and mechanical trades and promotion and marks and punishments are in an institution of the other sort.

Might it not be possible to unite both more thoroughly than has yet been done? Not that either class of institution ignores the value of the other kind, but each tends to develop on a single line where one would hope to find both. That they are not incapable of reconciliation I firmly believe. The mixed character of our population, religiously, is, perhaps, the greatest obstacle in the way. But possibly that may not last forever.

And, speaking of sobriety alone, what if the time should come when the disuse of spirits would, by religious authority in every religious body that claims to possess such authority, be put on the same level with the disuse of certain articles of food on certain days and during certain seasons of the year! What a break in habit that would make! "A veritable truce of God!" said dear old Dr. Hale, on my mentioning it to him the other day.

And a part of the work, moral and also physical, would be with the young. I have been interested in noting how vividly my tramp friends recall their childhood; how, when, where they first drank, first became drunk, first lapsed from purity, how they ran away and were brought back. Their favorite hymns look this way,— "Where is my wandering boy to-night?" etc. I remember hearing

this sung one night by the drunken occupant of a police cell. He paused after the question of the refrain, half soliloquized the answer, "In jail," then piped up again on the next stanza,—

> "Once he was pure as morning dew,
> As he knelt at his mother's knee"

And, though his voice was steady and clear, I thought it not altogether without sadness.

By the way, several of them have ascribed their first move trampward to meetings at dusk, around fires kindled on vacant city lots or in the outskirts of towns, with bums attracted by the friendly blaze and by the pint of fragrant gin that had been bought by their youthful hosts with money pilfered from parents. The children, in the neighborhood of the camping place I lately visited, were very curious about it, I noticed. And my own children report the camp as being a topic of much interest in the neighboring school.

Gatherings of this kind should be remorselessly repressed. And reminiscences like these might well stimulate parents to look out for their boys' leisure hours.

TRAMPS AND CASUALS IN PUBLIC LODGING-HOUSES.

Massachusetts, 1870–95.

Years ending	January 1.	July 1.	Daily Average.	Percentage of Gain.	Percentage of Loss.	Total for the Year.
Sept. 30, 1870	—	—	179.1	—		
" 1871	—	—	180.6	.8		
" 1872	—	—	*a* 200.	10.7		
" 1873	—	—	*d* 241.2	20.6		
" 1874	—	—	422.4	75.1		
March 31, 1875	—	—	554.4	31.4		
" 1876	*a* 1,031	—	574.6	3.6		
" 1877	*b* 1,059	—	522.4	—	9.1	
" 1878 *k*	1,229	349	*e* 719.	37.8		
" 1879	816	*c* —	538.6	—	25.1	
" 1880	632	187	*f* 461.	—	14.4	
" 1881	235	146	105.2	—	77.2	
" 1882	290	112	131.4	24.9		
" 1883	288	111	162.4	23.6		
" 1884	500	171	251.1	54.6		
" 1885	680	204	361.7	44.		
" 1886	733	193	378.5	4.6		
" 1887	534	168	361.4	—	4.5	
" 1888	681	347	373.8	3.4		
" 1889	775	170	431.1	15.3		
" 1890	751	166	427.3	—	.9	156,039
" 1891	637	216	390.8	—	8.8	142,792
" 1892	778	188	398.2	2.1	—	145,339
" 1893	644	256	378.9	—	4.8	138,296
" 1894	1,287	320	*g* 621.	63.9	—	226,679
" 1895	1,275	307	*h* 791.	24.7	—	282,595

a Approximate. *b* Dec. 29, 1876. *c* No census. *d* Great financial crash. *e* Railroad riots. *f* Tramp law passed. *g* Great depression in business; panic in summer of 1893. *h* Depression continues; Coxey tramp; April, 1895, the tide seems to turn. *k* This year a census was taken quarterly, showing on April 1, 1,127 tramps, and on October 1, 516. In 1879, on April 1 there were 973, and on October 1, 409.

XV.

Soldiers' Homes.

PENSIONS AND SOLDIERS' HOMES.

BY A. O. WRIGHT.

The American system of liberal pensions for disabled soldiers, their widows and orphans, is not a charity, but a business investment. The government does not depend upon a standing army of professional soldiers, but in times of need calls out its citizens from civil to military life. A part of their pay is the promise, express or implied, that they and their families shall be taken care of. This is in the nature of an insurance against risks incurred in a hazardous occupation. The Pennsylvania Railroad insures its employees against the accidents of their work. With different methods, but on the same principle, the United States insures its soldiers and sailors against the risks met in its military or naval service.

This system had its origin very early in the history of our government, and has been steadily maintained as its settled policy. The great Civil War did not cause any departure from this system, but only compelled its application on an enormous scale. This policy is an integral part of our democratic system of national defence by popular armies, and is in entire harmony with our democratic system of government. Our regular army and navy, with their select schools at West Point and Annapolis, and their system of promotion and of pensions for officers, as well as by the spirit of their traditions, are survivals of European aristocratic ideas. Our volunteer armies, with their freer traditions and with their pensions for soldiers, are the outgrowth of the democratic spirit, as truly as were the armies of the French republic and empire which Napoleon led.

This pension system has its defects in practice, which are mostly the results of bureaucracy. The Pension Office at Washington has

undertaken to manage a million applications for pensions scattered all over our country by department methods. In using official red tape, our federal officers are as expert as are those of European countries. The errors of *ex-parte* affidavits secured for applicants are more than offset by the errors of routine and carelessness at Washington. And it is the unanimous statement of all who are familiar with the actual facts that an immensely less number of pensions were withheld, until recent legislation, from applicants justly entitled to them, for lack of sufficient proof, than have been wrongfully secured through unscrupulous pension agents.

Tens of thousands of worthy applicants were unable to secure the proof that would connect their present disability with their military service a generation ago. And on the other hand there was a demand for a service pension. The recent disability pension law was the legislative result. Under this the fact of service and the fact of present disability only must be established to entitle the applicant to a small pension, not exceeding $12 a month. This has led to a considerable increase of the number of pensions and of the total paid by the government. But this is now at or near its highest point; and the number of pensioners and the amount paid will very soon begin to decrease quite rapidly, as the survivors of the Civil War die off. The only possibility of any considerable increase of the pension list is in case of a service pension being enacted which would place all survivors of the Civil War on the pension rolls, and would thus nearly double the number of pensioners. This, however, does not seem likely to be done for many years to come, when the survivors would all be entitled to a disability pension on the ground of old age.

In the case of widows the pension becomes in many cases, doubtless, an inducement to young women to marry old soldiers, which is an abuse dating back to the widows of veterans of the Revolutionary War, the last of whom have scarcely yet passed away.

The burden to the nation caused by the pension system is large; but it is entirely within the ability of the government to carry, and it gives the highest practical proof that the settled policy of this government is to care for its citizen soldiers, in consequence of which we can rely upon a volunteer army in time of public danger.

The pensions paid have, as a rule, been beneficial to the pensioners. They have come very much as endowment insurance payments or sick or accident benefits from fraternal societies. Money

received in such ways is not always expended wisely, and may encourage recipients to spend it in debauchery. This has also been the case with pension payments, especially when the long delays of the dilatory Pension Bureau have caused an accumulation of back payments. But the ordinary quarterly payments to ordinary pensioners are a distinct benefit to them, and are usually spent as wisely as the money received from other sources.

Soldiers' homes, on the other hand, are charities, and have the same general results as other charitable institutions. They are not poorhouses; but from one point of view they are charities, though from another point of view they are supplementary to the pension system. They are governed by the same law of human nature as other charities, and need the same precautions against abuses.

Soldiers' homes are just as liable as other charitable institutions to be mismanaged by incompetent officers or to be imposed upon by unworthy inmates. They are just as liable to the various forms of folly of which institutions are capable in construction and in government. It is a misfortune to humanity to have 2,000 to 4,000 feeble old men massed together in necessary idleness, as in our national homes. No wisdom of daily management can compensate for this fundamental error of plans. But this, again, was not a premeditated crime against humanity any more than a similar massing of insane or of children in other classes of charitable institutions. The rapid increase of members of soldiers' homes has been met by extensions of the original plans to fill immediate demands till the national homes are generally examples of the evils of too large institutions. The same want has also been met by State homes, which have had the same general fortunes and misfortunes as other State institutions. Generally, these are smaller copies of the national homes.

Wisconsin is the pioneer in three deviations from this plan, which have begun to be imitated in other States. The writer drew the bill for the Wisconsin Veterans' Home, and has been a member of its governing board from the beginning, and therefore may be unduly prejudiced in its favor. The Wisconsin home was the first to receive the wives and widows of soldiers, as do now quite a number of other State homes. We were also the first to adopt the cottage plan, properly so called. In addition to detached buildings, for single men, for single women, for feeble old people, for hospital, and for general dining-room, we have a large number of two-room cot-

tages each for a husband and wife, giving thus family life and breaking up the rigidity of institutionalism. We have also the distinctive feature of being managed by the G. A. R., aided by the State and national government. All the newer State homes are imitating our example and adopting one or more of these features, and thus breaking away from the traditions of institutionalism.

All the State homes are inspected and aided by the national government, and report to it as a part of its system of caring for disabled soldiers. There is, therefore, in spite of the deviation spoken of, a general unity of management. The system of records and reports to the national government is uniform. The diet and clothing are substantially the same. The methods of payment to members for work done is similar in all; and the rules for admission and discharge of members and of transfer from one to another home are the same except in the case of women, who are only admitted in a few State homes. As great a uniformity of administration as is desirable of the whole system of State and national homes under one board, which governs the national homes and supervises the State homes, is thus secured.

The administration of both State and national homes is, at least, as good as that of other charitable institutions managed by State or private authority. One great exception to this is the mechanical method compelled by the overgrowth of the national homes, the evils of which are aggravated by the idleness of the inmates and by the querulousness and crankiness of old age and enfeebled constitutions. These evils are less in the State institutions because of their smaller size, and least of all in the institutions built on the cottage plan.

The two chief evils of the State homes are also found in the national homes in equal or greater degree,— the reception of many members who could be supported outside and the vices to which many members are addicted. Both of these evils are greatly favored by the fact that soldiers may have the double benefit of a pension and of a soldiers' home. It is an anomaly for inmates of a charitable institution to have considerable amounts of spending money, ranging from $6 to $25 a month. The only wonder is that it does not do more harm than it does. The anomaly is explained partly by the fact that the pension is given for one reason and under one law, and the home is given for another reason and under another

law, partly by the fact that under the decisions of the courts a pension cannot be taken from a pensioner for a debt or refused him because of his being a member of a soldiers' home, and partly by the fact that until the last pension law, giving pensions for present disability, it was not supposed that most of the members of soldiers' homes would have any pensions. The actual effects of this anomaly, however, are just as bad as if it had been intended to do harm. It is true that most of the cases of abuse in these two lines are sifted out constantly by giving an honorable discharge to members of the home with pensions large enough with a little work to support themselves, and by giving a dishonorable discharge to the members of the home who are persistently disorderly or vicious. And yet there is room for very great improvement in both respects.

The need of this improvement is realized as keenly by the National Board of Managers and by the trustees of State homes as it is by any one. Efforts have been made and are still making to secure legislation from Congress, under which the authorities of the homes may control the pensions paid to members. Last December a convention was held at Milwaukee, at which nearly all the State soldiers' homes in the interior States were represented; and this subject formed one of the principal subjects for discussion, and there was no difference of opinion in the gathering. In the Wisconsin Veterans' Home we require all members to turn over to the home for its general fund all pensions in excess of $10 a month, and out of that to provide their own clothing and tobacco. It is true we have no legal power to enforce this, except by discharging the members refusing to pay, which we occasionally do. But the department encampment of the G. A. R., which elects the trustees, has frequently discussed this question. At its session last year the members of the home nearly all petitioned for an abrogation of this rule, but the encampment unanimously voted that the rule was right and should stand. Most of the State homes have adopted similar measures.

Many members of Soldiers' homes send a part of their pensions to their families, and others use their money at least in harmless ways. But probably about one-fourth of the members of each home spend their pension money as fast as they can in drunkenness and other vices. To remedy this evil, most of the national homes have established canteens on their grounds, where beer is sold to members

under restrictions as to the amount to be sold to each. The State homes do not themselves sell liquor, and do their best to prevent the purchase of liquor by the members. They meet, however, with indifferent success; and at least in Wisconsin we have trouble with the women as well as with the men.

So great is the evil that in the North-western Branch, located just outside the city limits of Milwaukee, the governor of the home this winter tried his best to secure an act of the legislature prohibiting the sale of liquor within half a mile of the grounds of the National Home. He was supported by the almost unanimous voice of the G. A. R. throughout Wisconsin, who poured in petitions on the legislature, and whose officers argued before committees and were fully reported in the newspapers. Although Wisconsin is far from being a prohibition State, the bill, after being changed so as to prohibit the sale of liquor to any member of the home within two miles, passed the Assembly after a fierce fight, by two-thirds majority, but was killed in the Senate by a trade. In the course of the public discussions aroused by this controversy, it was freely charged, and not denied, that numerous saloons had been established as near as possible to the grounds of the National Home, for the sole purpose of getting the soldiers' pension money, that many of these saloons were also gambling houses and houses of prostitution, and that many soldiers had died in them under suspicious circumstances. And what is true of the North-western Branch is to a greater or less extent true of other soldiers' homes. The best results in combating this evil have so far been obtained at the Western Branch of the National Home at Leavenworth, by the use of the Keeley cure, by which over 1,100 men have been cured of the drink habit, nearly 800 of whom have thus become self-supporting and have left the home.

On the other hand, in the State homes for Confederate soldiers the aid is not duplicated. Pensions are not given to those who are in the homes. The result is that there is a less amount of drinking and other vices than in the State and national homes for Union soldiers.

It is this duplication of aid, whether we call it charity or not making no difference, which causes the trouble; and, if it were an original question, there would be but one answer: no pensions would be given to pensioners who are members of soldiers' homes.

But, as it is, that would now be too revolutionary to be accepted. The next best thing is to correct the worst abuses. There are about one-fourth of the members of most soldiers' homes who are really incapable of taking care of money. They ought to be under guardianship for their own good, and for the good of the homes, and for the protection of the worthy members of the same. There should be a clear legal power vested in the officers of soldiers' homes, or in some competent authority, to protect this class of soldiers from the consequences of their own weakness, and to protect the homes from disorder by holding the pension money for the incapable pensioners, and using it for them in proper ways. This need not interfere with the use of the pension by the capable three-fourths. This proposition, I believe, would be accepted unanimously by the governing boards and the officers of all soldiers' homes, and by a large share of the members of such homes. Such a provision requires legislation by Congress, and such legislation can be much more easily secured after discussion in such an organization as this is.

Judging by the laws which govern the decay and death of human beings, with our knowledge of the ages of the soldiers of the Civil War, it has been estimated by experts that the demand for accommodation in soldiers' homes will continue to increase quite rapidly for about ten years more, and that it will then begin to fall off, as the soldiers die, till in about thirty years from now nearly all will have passed away, and the soldiers' homes will stand deserted. This fact suggests questions in relation to the construction and management of soldiers' homes which will well repay careful consideration. In Wisconsin we are building upon an inexpensive plan, with the understanding that it is for a few years only. But the buildings and grounds are owned by the State, and will probably be used for some other charitable purpose when we are through with them.

HOMES FOR SOLDIERS AND SAILORS.

REPORT OF COMMITTEE.

Your committee have made a preliminary survey of the lines which enclose its field of inquiry, and report progress.

We present no plan to scare the sentiment and disturb the pride of the present or to mar the memories of the past.

Many of our comrades have fallen into the rout step of disability and misfortune, and are compelled to seek the shelter and care afforded under State or national authority. The degree of comfort which will attend their closing days will be measured by the wisdom of plans and policies devised and enacted in their behalf. The invitation of this Conference to make use of its organization as a convenient school for the study and comparison of methods affords an opportunity to all officials charged with the responsible duty of advising legislative bodies and directing management, which, if improved, cannot fail to raise the standards of efficiency and economy. The alignment of interests is established by unbroken precedent. Upon the nation preserved from dissolution is justly laid the duty of caring for him who took the hazard of life, health, and opportunity, that "a government of the people, for the people, and by the people, should not perish."

Upon the States which strove to dissolve the federal compact and establish an independent confederacy is imposed the duty of caring for him who wore the gray, that the shame of neglect may not imbitter the memory of sacrifices made.

These men cast the jewels of life into the whirlpool of battle, and met with unflinching courage every obligation imposed by the environments of their citizenship. In pain and silence they are closing the last great march to their eternal camping ground. Waiving nothing of consistency, and with a plain purpose to serve a common need, we, their comrades, meet upon the picket-line of a humane civilization, in this thirtieth anniversary year of peace, under the folds of one flag, to share the benefits of mutual study of methods and needs.

The first duty of your committee is to urge attention to the need of expediting measures for relief. The curtain will soon be drawn

over the last scene in the drama of our Civil War. The ratios of disability and dependency in the ranks of our soldier population are rising with a rapidity which overtaxes every present resource. What is done must be done quickly. Discussion must be brief, and action prompt. Governmental policy should be concluded by the enlargement of such national homes as are susceptible of enlargement, within the requirements of approved conditions, without delay; and new homes should be established, at salient points, under the management of the government, with especial features of equipment to meet the needs of changing conditions.

States, communities, and individuals co-operating for the care of the Union veteran in the North, or the Confederate veteran in the South, must heed the command to "double quick" in movements on their several lines of action to preserve our citizenship from the stain of ingratitude.

The recurring annual sessions of this Conference should be open to the presence of officials and citizens who are impressed by the apparent need of using the opportunities which it affords to aid those in authority to educate public sentiment and to draw from a common experience the lessons needed to guide future action.

Your committee invited an expression of views from interested officials, through a circular letter which outlined the character of this report, and of which the following is a copy: —

TWENTY-SECOND NATIONAL CONFERENCE OF CHARITIES AND CORRECTION.

NEW HAVEN, CONN., MAY 24–30, 1895.

COMMITTEE ON HOMES FOR SOLDIERS AND SAILORS.

OFFICE OF CHAIRMAN.

ATCHISON, KAN., March 1, 1895.

Dear Sir,— At the twenty-first session of the National Conference of Charities and Correction, convened at Nashville, Tenn., in May, 1894, a Committee on Homes for Soldiers and Sailors was created, of which the undersigned have been designated as members.

The committee was created to aid an inquiry concerning the present and prospective needs of the dependent soldiers and sailors of our country, both North

and South, and to invite an exchange of opinion upon questions of policy, with the view of encouraging such action as will result in the correction of existing errors and neglect and the promotion of wise effort for the future within the lines herein defined.

The following outline indicates the character of the discussion desired, and the committee will feel obliged for an expression of your views upon all or any of the subjects presented.

Your communication may be addressed to Hon. C. E. Faulkner, chairman, Atchison, Kan., until May 1 next.

STATISTICS.

First.— Of national homes, to be compiled by the chairman from latest official reports.

Second.— Of State homes for Union soldiers and sailors, to be compiled by the chairman from latest official reports.

Third.— Of State or other homes for Confederate soldiers and sailors, to be compiled by Messrs. Randolph and Dudley, members of the committee.

POLICY.

First.— Should the government assume the entire cost of supporting the disabled and dependent Union soldiers and sailors?

Second.— Should the policy of constructing both national and State homes be changed or modified by some alternate plan? and, if so, what plan is suggested?

QUESTIONS OF GENERAL POLICY INTERESTING TO ALL HOMES.

First.— Ought provision to be made in State homes for the wives, widows, or children of soldiers and sailors? and, if so, under what plan or limitation should this form of public benevolence be administered?

Second.— Ought soldiers and sailors and their wives and widows to receive both a home and a pension? and, if so, under what conditions?

Third.— What is the best method for destroying or lessening the evils of the drink habit in all homes for soldiers and sailors?

Fourth.— What plan of construction in the arrangement of buildings will best promote the welfare and comfort of the inmates within the limits of practicable cost, having due regard to differences in moral and social conditions?

Fifth.— In what manner can the concurring opinions of officials and students of methods relating to the above subjects be best presented to the attention of those in authority?

Respectfully submitted,

C. E. Faulkner.
A. O. Wright.
General R. Brinkerhoff.
General W. B. Franklin.
Major R. H. Dudley.
Major T. J. Charlton.
Major N. V. Randolph.
Captain L. C. Storrs.

In response to the questions submitted in the foregoing letter, many replies have been received from officials connected with the management of national and State homes, and others interested in their welfare, which give promise of an increasing interest in the study of the subjects under consideration and a cordial co-operation along lines of mutual interest. We present these communications for the consideration of this Conference, and suggest their publication as an aid to the study of the important problems to be solved.

Statistical Information.

Accurate information covering important statistics relating to all homes for soldiers and sailors should be compiled and published in convenient form for distribution among those who are charged with the duties of management, in order that the benefits resulting from comparison and the official recital of experience may be made available.

The financial and vital statistics relating to the several branches of the National Home for Disabled Volunteer Soldiers are fully set forth in the annual reports of the board of managers having control of the affairs of these institutions. Similar information is contained in the reports of the several homes under State management; but there is a lack of uniformity in these several reports, which hinders a ready analysis of their respective conditions. Your committee advise action to secure uniformity in statistical reports pertaining to all institutions, including those which are maintained by private contributions.

This action may be secured through the co-operating effort of the boards of managers and trustees of the homes, to devise appropriate forms of tables for publication in the annual Proceedings of this Conference. Your committee have received several reports from State homes, but the failure of officials to respond to requests for reports prevents a consolidated exhibit for the use of this Conference.

The following tables exhibit the condition of the branches of the National Home at the close of the fiscal year ending June 30, 1894:

STATISTICAL TABLES EXHIBITING THE POPULATION, AND THE TOTAL EXPENDITURES FOR LANDS, BUILDINGS, AND IMPROVEMENTS, AND SHOWING THE COST OF CURRENT SUPPORT FOR THE YEAR ENDING JUNE 30, 1894, AT THE BRANCHES OF THE NATIONAL HOME FOR DISABLED VOLUNTEER SOLDIERS.

NAMES.	Land, Acres.	Cost.	Buildings and Improvements.	Total.
Central	577	$85,445.30	$1,339,862.17	$1,425,307.47
North-western . .	382	79,445.24	558,478.07	637,924.21
Eastern	1,754	20,400.00	452,500.55	472,900.55
Southern	26	25,000.00	765,127.22	790,127.22
Western	640	Donated	534,957.39	534,957.39
Pacific	631	Donated	410,101.67	410,101.67
Marion	217	24,287.30	400,162.33	424,449.63
Totals	4,227	$234,577.84	$4,461,190.30	$4,695,768.14

POPULATION.

Average number of members present during year	15,601
Average number of members present and absent	19,238
Whole number cared for	23,615
Deaths	1,050
Average age of members cared for	59.23
Average age of those who died	64.10
Average length of residence of those in the Home who died . . .	7.16

SUPPORT.

Per capita cost for current support, exclusive of items for construction and repairs, for average number present	$127.45
Total per capita cost for average number present	147.22

PENSIONS.

Total number of pensioners in membership of home	15,117
Amount paid to families through the home	$409,231.18
Amount paid to pensioners	1,637,278.10
Average amount of pensions paid during year	132.33

Accommodations.

The board of managers report that the conveniences of the several branches of the home are exhausted, and that only two of these branches can be properly enlarged; to wit, the Marion and Pacific branches.

Admissions to the home are suspended either on account of a lack of room or when there is danger that the funds appropriated for the current support of members is insufficient.

Inspection.

The inspection of the several branches of the National Home for Disabled Volunteer Soldiers is secured by the War Department for the information of Congress through the office of the Inspector-General of the Army, and for the information of the board of managers through an officer reporting to said board. Application was made to the War Department for a report of the latest official inspection, which was duly forwarded by J. C. Breckenridge, Inspector-general.

The report received covers a period from October 3 to Dec. 23, 1894, and is a comprehensive sketch of existing conditions.

The officers conducting the affairs of the branch homes are credited with an encouraging degree of enthusiasm, zeal, and general efficiency; and the provisions for the comfort of inmates seem to bear a proper proportion to the means provided for their acquisition.

These facts do not obscure the force of the statement contained in the following sentence from the report of the Inspector-General:

"The men are now growing old and decrepit, and are possibly fading away faster than State and national governments can build permanent structures for them."

And added to this statement we find the following: "However commendable the majority of the buildings may be, there is a limit to their capacity which has been decidedly overstepped."

Your committee can add nothing to increase the force of these official declarations. They should be emphasized by press and platform until those who hold in their hands the powers of remedial legislation are stirred to action.

State Homes.

State homes for the shelter and care of dependent soldiers and sailors who served in the Union army and navy have been established in California, Colorado, Connecticut, Illinois, Indiana, Iowa, Kansas, Massachusetts, Michigan, Minnesota, Nebraska, New Hampshire, New Jersey, New York, Ohio, Pennsylvania, Rhode Island, South Dakota, Washington, Wisconsin, and Vermont. All of these are in operation except that of Indiana, for which provision has but recently been made. Shelter is provided for an approximate number of eight thousand inmates, and the institutions are in a degree auxiliary to the National Home.

Provision for the care of the indigent and maimed Confederate soldiers have been established in Arkansas, Louisiana, Tennessee, Texas, Virginia, Florida, Maryland, and Missouri. The first five named of these homes are supported by State appropriations, and the others by private contributions of citizens of the respective States.

Statistical information in regard to these homes is not available for this report; but every source of authentic information gives evidence of the necessity for studious activity, in order that the stigma of neglect may not be charged against the fair fame of American citizenship.

Acknowledgments.

The especial thanks of your committee representing the interesting subject committed for its consideration are due to its associate members, Messrs. Randolph and Dudley, for the report on Confederate homes and opinions on questions of common interest, to General W. B. Franklin, president of the board of managers of the National Home for Disabled Volunteer Soldiers, for his co-operation in the work of the committee, to the Inspector-General of the War Department for his valuable report of inspections made, and to those governors of national branch homes and commandants of State homes who have responded to the requests of the committee for reports and information.

Conclusion.

The benefits to be derived through a study and comparison of methods and needs common to all institutions designed to afford shelter to the war-worn veterans of our country can only be secured by the assembling of persons engaged in the practical work of management in a conference school. The losses and failures consequent upon a continued working on lines of individual experience are not creditable to the intelligence of the country. It is within the power of officials who accept the management of these great trusts to largely increase their power for useful service by the adoption of a conference system of study and by systematic co-operation in efforts to secure grants of legislative support. In the name of a common humanity we urge a general advance in the interest of better results.

C. E. Faulkner.
A. O. Wright.
General R. Brinkerhoff.
General W. B. Franklin.
Major R. H. Dudley.
Major T. J. Charlton.
Major N. V. Randolph.
Captain L. C. Storrs.

XVI.

Reports from States.

REPORT OF THE COMMITTEE ON REPORTS FROM STATES.

The plan of collecting the reports from States has been somewhat modified this year. The Corresponding Secretaries have been asked to present simply a brief report of progress, such as can be read in five minutes, omitting statistics. The statistics of State institutions have been collected by direct correspondence with the superintendents of the institutions, supplemented by reference to the printed reports of the institutions, the printed reports of the auditors of States, and correspondence with the secretaries of the State Boards of Charities.

We have the pleasure of presenting for the first time a report, more or less complete, from every State.

Returns have been received from about 300 out of the 350 State charitable and correctional institutions. The results are exhibited in the charts which follow the reports from States. These charts consist: first, of a directory of the State institutions, giving the corporate name, location, date of establishment, name of superintendent, title of the managing board, and address of the secretary of the board; second, a statistical statement, showing the normal capacity of the institution, the number of inmates present Dec. 31, 1893, and Dec. 31, 1894, and the expenses of maintenance, gross, net, and per capita, for the last fiscal year, together with the estimated value of the property belonging to the institution.

These charts will repay the careful study of those who are interested in such institutions.

It is unnecessary to anticipate the details, which will be presented by the Corresponding Secretaries of the several States. The work of State institutions has been much less affected by the hard times

than the work of city charities. In some of the States — for example, North Dakota, South Dakota, Nebraska, and Indiana — appropriations for the State institutions have been materially reduced; but in most of the States it has been recognized that the need is greater than usual, and the appropriations have been kept up to their usual mark.

Institutions for the feeble-minded have been established in Michigan and Wisconsin, and institutions for epileptics have been established in Ohio and New York. It seems probable that institutions for epileptics will be created before many years in most of the States.

A State Board of Charities has been established in New Hampshire. Efforts have been made to establish State Boards of Charities in Iowa, Missouri, Nebraska, Tennessee, and Louisiana; but thus far they have been unsuccessful.

The statistical charts which accompany this report were prepared by Mr. George G. Cowie, clerk of the Minnesota State Board of Corrections and Charities.

ALABAMA.

BY MISS JULIA S. TUTWILER, CORRESPONDING SECRETARY.

It is with pain that I state that Alabama has retrograded during the past year. The terrible financial depression caused the election of a legislature pledged to retrenchment along every possible line. The convict commission created two years ago, with a view to the abrogation of the lease system, has been abolished, and matters restored almost to the old status. It was claimed that the State had not the means necessary to provide for the convicts, and could not possibly at this time take charge of them; in fact, that she could feed and clothe them only by continuing to hire their labor to the highest bidder. Public opinion, which two years ago so urgently demanded the abolition of the lease system, seems now to have acquiesced in its indefinite continuance. Doubtless the conduct of the free miners who attacked and killed nine striking miners at Pratt City last summer has had some effect in putting a stop to the agitation so far as it originated in sympathy with the free miners, but the condition of the State finances was the alleged reason for the backward movement.

The State Woman's Christian Temperance Union procured the

insertion of a clause in the new bill, permitting the inspectors to establish a reformatory for boys and a prison for women; but, as the legislature made no appropriation for these objects, these clauses must remain inoperative. The new law abolished the convict commission, and placed the whole convict system again under the care of the inspectors. The new law fails to put this system even on as high a plane as it was before, since the paragraph requiring night schools wherever one hundred convicts are gathered was omitted. This paragraph was in the bill, but, when it was read before the legislature, was violently attacked on the ground that the sum proposed to be thus expended should be spent on the education of the children of honest citizens instead of being used for worthless reprobates. This omission closed the school at the old penitentiary, where all boys have been sent for several years past, also the school at Coalburg, where only county convicts are sent. Fortunately, the Tennessee Coal & Iron Company in their lease contract had pledged themselves to maintain a night school for the prisoners hired to them. So the two schools at Pratt mines are continued, and will be continued so long as the contract with this company lasts.

The average number of State convicts for the past two years has been 1,380. The average number of county convicts has been 907. The State convicts are said to increase in number at the rate of more than one hundred a year. Of course, things will grow worse instead of better in this regard so long as we continue to use a system which does almost nothing for the reformation of the prisoners.

The failure of the legislature to provide an appropriation for the Boys' Reformatory is particularly distressing to the friends of prison reform, because the United States government has just offered to the State the barracks at Fort Mt. Vernon to be used for this purpose. The lack of means to carry on such an institution has prevented the State from accepting the gift. Those of us who have worked for fifteen years in hopes of seeing the State clear these stains from its good name and take rank in this respect with civilized communities are heartsick, weary, and ashamed. Before the legislature met, thousands of circulars were sent out to ministers of all denominations, county officials, and all other prominent men in the State, urging them to use their influence for a boys' reformatory, a woman's prison, and the improvement of our county jails; but all has availed nothing. There has been a receding wave.

The only bright spot in this dark picture is the hope that we are about to form an Alabama branch of the National Conference of Charities and Correction. A prominent citizen in a letter received by the Secretary during this month says: —

I believe I can now secure the co-operation of some of the enthusiastic members of the Society for the Prevention of Cruelty to Animals in forming an Alabama branch of the National Association of Charities and Correction. I am one of the vice-presidents of the former society, and am arranging to amend our State charter, so as to include prevention of cruelty to children; and I have suggested the organization of a society to embrace the larger objects of the National Charities and Correction Association.

If we succeed in establishing a State branch with this society, I trust that our next annual report will not be so discouraging, to use the mildest word, as this one.

ALASKA.

BY REV. SHELDON JACKSON, CORRESPONDING SECRETARY.

I find myself much in the same position as last year with reference to the report from the district of Alaska. We are still practically in an unorganized condition. Alaska, as you know, has an area equal to one-sixth of the United States. The American, or white population, is confined to a very small section in South-eastern Alaska and around the head-waters of the Yukon River. I presume that they number not over 3,000 people, mostly men. The remaining country, comprising almost all of Alaska, is occupied by scattered bands of barbarians that can in a general way be classified as: first, the Esquimaux, occupying the three coast sides of Alaska; second, Athabascan Indians, occupying the valleys of the interior rivers; third, Thlingets, occupying the extreme south-eastern portion; and, fourth, the Aleutians, occupying the Aleutian Islands. The first three, comprising three-fourths of the entire population of the country, are barbarians, controlled and governed by their own customs and laws which have grown up among them from the indefinite past. The small number of whites in the country can be better described from the fact that there are only three schools in all Alaska composed of children of the white popula-

tion. Congress has given us nominally a district government, with a governor, a United States district judge, a United States district attorney, a United States marshal, and four United States commissioners as the governing power, and extended over the country the laws of Oregon. While we have nominally all the paraphernalia of government, yet, practically, the government is powerless to enforce law or govern the country. The seat of the government at Sitka is on a small island, and the government officials have no method of conveyance for travelling around the Territory. The public sentiment is such that no jury can be had to enforce the liquor laws or punish immorality among the people. Any law that is contrary to the customs or inclinations of the lower class of white men, who are among the first to float to the frontier section, cannot be and is not enforced, largely from the fact that these same men are usually found on the juries. With this aboriginal condition of society and thin veneering of government, we have no public institutions for reforming children or caring for criminals or providing for the unfortunates,— the blind, the deaf, the weak-minded, the dumb, and the insane; and so far they have no constituency that take any interest in such things. A very little is being done at the mission stations by the missionaries, perhaps to the full extent of their ability. The improved methods that are being developed and worked out by the National Conference of Charities will be a great help to us in the future, when we secure a larger number of the better class of American citizens, through whose influence a public sentiment may be created that shall demand the establishment of methods for taking charge of the unfortunate classes. While we cannot report anything as being done, yet we very gladly express our deep interest in what is being done elsewhere, as it will prove a help for us when we get ready to act.

ARIZONA.

BY J. B. HAMBLIN, M.D., SUPERINTENDENT ARIZONA ASYLUM FOR THE INSANE.

The number of inmates in the Arizona asylum for the insane June 30, 1895, was: males, 101; females, 26; total, 127. The fair capacity of the institution without overcrowding, for inmates only, not including officers or employees, is 200.

The insane asylum was established by act of the legislature of 1885. The board of directors consists of three persons.

The Territorial prison was established in 1875. A Territorial reform school was established in 1895, but no buildings have yet been erected. The legislature of 1895 enacted a parole law to apply to the convicts in the Territorial prison.

The legislature of 1895 established a Territorial board of control, to consist of the governor, the auditor, and a secretary, to be appointed by the governor. This board will have control of the Territorial prison, reform school, and the insane asylum.

The legislature of 1895 made provision for boarding deaf and dumb children in other States, and an appropriation of $3,000 was made for this purpose.

ARKANSAS.

BY SUPERINTENDENTS OF STATE INSTITUTIONS.

The State of Arkansas maintains a school for the blind, an institution for deaf-mutes, a lunatic asylum, a Confederate State soldiers' home, and a State penitentiary, all of which, except the soldiers' home, are located at Little Rock, the capital of the State. This arrangement has some great advantages, as it permits the close supervision of the State officials, and renders the institutions readily accessible to the people of the State.

Dr. J. J. Robertson, superintendent of the State Lunatic Asylum, reports that his institution was established in 1882. It has a normal capacity of 620. The number of inmates Dec. 31, 1894, was: males, 222; females, 262; total, 484. This was a reduction of 86 from the previous year. He reports the expense per patient as only $78.93 per year. It may be hoped that no State in the Union shows a lower rate of expenditure.

The Deaf-mute Institute has a capacity of 250 inmates. The number Dec. 31, 1894, was 191. The expense per inmate was about $200. Four new trades have been added in the school for the deaf. The legislature of 1895 appropriated nearly $100,000 for this institution, which promises a good thing for the future.

The Confederate Soldiers' Home at "Sweet Home" has a capacity of 50 inmates. The number on hand June 30, 1895, was 32.

The School for the Blind has a capacity of 250 inmates. The

number on hand Dec. 31, 1893, was 130. The colored pupils are kept in a rented building.

The State penitentiary has a capacity of 500 inmates. There were on hand June 30, 1895, 905 inmates, of whom 277 were whites, 624 blacks, and 4 Indians. Of these convicts 181 were "in walls" and 724 "at camps."

CALIFORNIA.

BY MRS. SARAH B. COOPER, CORRESPONDING SECRETARY.

The State of California is moving forward in the administration of its charitable and corrective institutions, and a steady advance is being made in regard to modes and methods. Being so far removed from the great centres, we do not catch the *first* impetus toward any well-adjusted reform. Our great fault has been an excess of charity in the way of giving. For example, San Francisco, with a population scarcely numbering 300,000, expended last year no less than $1,380,510. An amendment to the Penal Code makes vagrancy punishable by imprisonment in the county jail not exceeding six months; and the term "vagrancy" includes a very wide range, as interpreted by the Code. This is a wise piece of legislation, and will tend to reduce the excessive distribution of charity in our large cities.

The legislation, during the last two years, in regard to charities, paupers, vagrants, and minors, has all tended in the right direction, — toward self-help and self-support. By the political Code the State has the right to establish custody and restraint of paupers for the purposes of their maintenance.

Another fine stroke of legislation is the new section making it a misdemeanor to furnish tobacco to minors under the age of sixteen years, punishable by a fine not exceeding $100. Furnishing minors under the age of eighteen years with intoxicating drink is made a misdemeanor punishable by a fine of not less than $100 or by imprisonment in the county jail for a period of not less than a hundred days.

Still another wise provision has been enacted, making it a misdemeanor for a guardian or master to require a child to labor more than eight hours a day, except in vinicultural or horticultural pursuits or in domestic or household occupations. No minor under

eighteen shall be employed in any manufacturing, mercantile, or mechanical establishment, in any case, for more than sixty hours per week. No child under ten shall be employed in such establishments. There are three State asylums for the insane, with 3,460 patients. There are two other State asylums not yet completed, one at Ukiah and the other at San Bernardino. The number of patients cared for in the three asylums during the past two years was 6,141. Expended for maintenance and salaries, $1,071,583. California has two State prisons, with 1,964 prisoners. Average cost per capita per day, $0.413.

The Preston School of Industry at Ione has for its object the reform of young criminals, and to qualify them for honorable employment.

The State Reform School at Whittier is also educational and reformatory, and the boys and girls are taught industrial pursuits. There are 299 inmates.

The California Home for the Care and Training of Feeble-minded Children at Gelston has 237 inmates, who are supported at a cost of $0.557 per diem per inmate, a large proportion free of charge.

The California Institution for the Deaf, Dumb, and Blind is a model institution. There are 203 pupils. Besides the regular courses, instruction is given in carpentering, printing, and typewriting.

There is an Industrial Home of Mechanical Trades for the Adult Blind. Its aim is to enable the blind to prepare for self-support. There are 85 inmates, including both sexes. The chief industry is broom-making. The inmates are paid wages, and a good workman can earn about $200 a year.

The Women's Relief Corps assist such Union veterans as need help and protection, and extend needful aid to their widows and orphans. There are 3,000 members in the department of California. Over 1,000 persons have been aided.

Ladies of the Grand Army of the Republic extend needful aid to honorably discharged soldiers and marines of the Civil War. There is a combined membership of over 10,000.

There are 204 charitable agencies in San Francisco that relieve the needy. This does not include the churches nor private benevolence. This includes 10 hospitals, with 15,712 patients, and 9 dispensaries, with 15,762 visits. Total amount expended in hospitals,

$226,456.29; in dispensaries, $13,141.78. The Associated Charities of San Francisco have about 80 co-operating societies. They have found limited employment for over 5,000 men in their woodyard. There is properly no official outdoor relief in San Francisco. Much preventive work is done through the free kindergartens of San Francisco. The Golden Gate Association sustains 38 free kindergartens, in which over 20,000 little children have been trained during the past sixteen years. The city is feeling the good results of this work. The children come from districts where criminals are made.

There are 7 homes for aged and infirm people in San Francisco, and 19 orphanages and homes for needy children.

All these various institutions are on the upward trend in regard to the methods of administration and the modes of best reaching the highest good of the inmates.

COLORADO.

BY JOHN H. GABRIEL, CORRESPONDING SECRETARY.

Colorado has taken a forward step during the past two years in the work of charities and corrections. Public sentiment has been aroused to the necessity for active agencies in every department of the work. This condition has been brought about by the efforts of the State Board of Charities and Corrections in arranging for a conference, which was largely attended by all classes of workers. A varied programme was carried out, and valuable papers were read. Agitation has been continued through the newspapers, and education advanced along every line.

Penitentiary.— Advance in the management of the penitentiary is shown in the humane treatment of the prisoners, the abolition of corporal punishment, and a classification into three grades, based upon conduct. The warden, whose term of office expired April 3, 1895, heard the complaint of each prisoner who had complaint to make every Sunday morning, and gave a considerate hearing to all requests or complaints made during the week. Each case was considered and treated upon its individual merits. In a very few instances only was cuffing or stringing up permitted, and this only in the very early part of the term. "Hosing" was entirely abolished. The pressure of the hard times has increased the number

of convicts very rapidly, until we have, May 1, 649 convicts in the penitentiary and 72 in the reformatory. We have no labor for our convicts, but during the past two years all prisoners that could be spared from the prison work have been engaged in the building of a State canal.

Industrial School for Boys.— A new superintendent has introduced new and more humane methods of care and treatment of the boys at the Industrial School. Upon recommendation of this Board, the Board of Control of this school passed a resolution granting to the superintendent the power of employing and discharging all minor officers. This power is by statute lodged in the Board of Control. By this action the superintendent is enabled to secure more competent help, free from political embarrassment.

New Legislation.

Home for Dependent and Neglected Children.— An act establishing a Home for Dependent and Neglected Children was passed by our last legislature, and has become a law. The act made an appropriation of $5,000 per annum for maintenance. The provision of the bill for a school in connection therewith was stricken out.

Soldiers' and Sailors' Home.— A more detailed law governing the Soldiers' and Sailors' Home was passed. Among its provisions is one empowering the commissioners to take all pensions, and hold the same for the use of the pensioner when he shall leave the home. This proviso was inserted to prevent intoxication at the home.

An act requiring a detailed registration of all poor seeking relief, as well as the relief furnished, became a law.

A bill to establish the indeterminate sentence and parole law as a part of our criminal jurisprudence passed the Senate, but was defeated in the House by a very small majority.

An act to take from the governor the appointment of the warden of the reformatory and to place the appointment in the Board of Commissioners, to hold his office during their pleasure, was vetoed by the governor.

An act to establish a single Board of Control of all State institutions, charitable, correctional, and educational, passed the House, but was defeated in the Senate.

The hard times have largely increased the number of paupers,

estimated at 10 per cent. The number of prisoners in the county jails has increased about 15 per cent.

Many Charity Organization Societies or Associated Charities have been organized in the smaller cities in the State, and are accomplishing good work.

CONNECTICUT.

BY PROFESSOR J. J. MCCOOK, CORRESPONDING SECRETARY.

The bill for a reformatory prison, which was favorably reported upon by the Judiciary Committee of the last General Assembly, and printed with the General Statutes, has gone this session to the Committee on Humane Institutions, and after two public hearings a favorable report has been made; and it is at least possible that the bill will be passed. The proposed statute appears to be approved by everybody; but the heavy expense is a serious embarrassment. It is possible, however, that the chance of obtaining relief through the institution, for the county jails (which are in some instances so crowded as to threaten to require extensive enlargements), may help overcome this difficulty. It seems to have been demonstrated, also, that, apart from the plant, the weekly cost of such institutions as the one at Elmira is below that of our jails and almshouses and workhouses, where the people for whom this reformatory is largely designed now spend a great part of their time.

A bill prohibiting pool-selling was passed two years ago. The attempt then unsuccessfully made to exempt from the operation of the law race-tracks and driving-parks for a specified number of days each year has been renewed this year with some prospect of success. The passage of such an amendment would make acts lawful or even laudable on one side of an inch plank which are felony on the other!

A law has been passed this year which confirms the provision of the constitution forbidding the admission to the suffrage of any persons not of good moral character. A statute was passed some years ago, which provided that no offence committed during his minority should debar the candidate from being made a voter. It is now provided that, when a person has during his minority been convicted twice of any of the felonies which at present disfranchise, or is actually serving a term of imprisonment for the same at the time of

reaching his majority, or if he has during his minority been three or more times guilty of any offence the penalty of which is imprisonment in jail or fine and imprisonment, then he shall not be admitted to the suffrage.

Unfortunately, another law was unfavorably reported upon, which would have done still more to purify the lists and to diminish vice, by removing from the opportunity of making money at elections a class of persons who are undoubtedly, in the main, venal. This law proposed to disfranchise for five years on three convictions for any jail offence within any twelve consecutive months, and, on repetition, to disfranchise permanently. Under the present law men are disfranchised for petty thefts,— as in a recent instance of a chicken,— because that ranks as felony. But men who spend the greater part of their time in jail for drunkenness or licentiousness or abuse of wife and children go on voting with even greater regularity than the average well-behaved citizen,— not that they care for politics more, but because they find greater profit in it.

The pauper laws of the State are much in need of revision; and the tramp laws, largely through withdrawal of the premium on arrests, are rarely enforced. A bill providing for an unpaid commission to inquire into pauperism and vagabondage, their causes and remedies, has been rejected on the unfavorable report of the Judiciary Committee.

The county homes for the care of children taken from their parents, on account of the latter's unfitness to have the care of them themselves, are steadily becoming more and more crowded, apparently, in part, because of the lack of some systematic provision for placing the children in families.

The few Charity Organization Societies in the State seem to be in a condition of fair vigor, and are evidently doing an educational work of steadily increasing magnitude and efficiency. So far as I know, only one new one has been organized within the past two years.

The Woman's Relief Corps of the Grand Army of the Republic may perhaps merit mention as one of the more earnest and active of our organized charities.

The School of Sociology begun in Hartford, under the care of the Society for Education Extension, is a unique experiment, on every account worthy of attention. It has finished its first year with five matriculated students, who have attended thirty courses of lectures

by as many lecturers, paying therefor a fee of $50. The schedule has been prepared for the second year, and in three years the entire curriculum will be in working order.

It is not without significance that the questions relating to remedying or alleviating social inconveniences, which ignorance and inexperience are disposed to settle in such off-hand way, are kept for the mature study of the final year in this school.

There are not lacking signs that public opinion in the State is becoming more and more intelligently concerned to find some improved treatment of that which appears to be the chief immediate occasion of the greater part of our crime, poverty, and deterioration, both physical and mental,— I mean drunkenness.

DELAWARE.

BY MRS. MARY A. J. CLARK, CORRESPONDING SECRETARY.

We regret to report that Delaware has made little progress through legislation for her dependent or defective classes. We have no State Boards, but a State Board of Health with limited powers, and but one State institution, the Delaware State Hospital for the Insane, located in New Castle County, and under the most efficient management of Dr. Hancker, its superintendent, whose usefulness is greatly hampered by the need of larger accommodations and greater facilities. After most persistent and untiring effort of the superintendent and trustees, the legislature appropriated $35,000 for additional buildings. They hope in the near future to accommodate all the State's patients coming under this classification.

The legislature at its last session also appropriated an additional $1,000, making now $2,000 from the State, toward the Industrial School for Girls. This institution, established on a similar basis as the Ferris Industrial School for Boys, is young, but is doing most praiseworthy work for a class of girls whom there has hitherto been no effort made to help. It is meeting with merited success, and will in future make its own history. At present the girls are taught sewing, cooking, laundry work, and all other household duties. Within the past few weeks, through the liberality of two of their managers, Mr. and Mrs. Samuel Bancroft, Jr., they have become possessed of a fine lot of ground in the suburban part of the city,

where they will soon erect more commodious buildings, when, with their increased facilities, much good work is looked for.

The Ferris Industrial School for Boys since our last report has added a manual training department to its otherwise efficient management. They have also established a band of music, which is a large factor in maintaining better discipline. This institution is doing a great humanitarian work, and its influence is felt throughout the State.

The Home for Friendless Children, a commodious building with all modern improvements, good sanitation, ample play-grounds for the children, with kindergarten and primary schools all under the efficient management of women, has long been established as a success.

The St. Peter's Orphanage for Catholic Girls is another old institution where much good work is done, but of which we have no statistics.

The Boys' Protectorate is situated about nine miles from our city.

The St. Joseph's Home for Colored Boys is a new institution; but, through the efforts of Father Du Ruyter, its chief manager, it has grown to vast and most useful proportions. Through his earnest solicitations, its support comes from all over the land, and even from beyond the sea. His object is to educate and elevate colored boys who have no parents or guardians, and to fit them for the battle of life with some practical trade which they are able to master when they leave the institution at the age of twenty-one. The new and most hopeful feature is the manual training school about being completed a few miles distant in the county, which they expect to have in operation in a short time. Connected with this institution is also a free dispensary, where medical attendance and medicine are furnished free of charge to those unable to pay for it, regardless of race or nationality. Last year over seven thousand free prescriptions were filled.

There has been no change in our county institutions,—no report from the two lower counties. The New Castle County almshouse is a fine, commodious building, with all modern improvements and facilities. The management of the present superintendent is satisfactory to the board of trustees. The appropriation for outdoor relief is about $8,000.

Our present prison system is a discredit to our State and an in-

justice to the criminal. There has been no change in the management of the jails in the lower counties for many years. In New Castle County within the past few years stone-breaking has been introduced as a means of employment, the only resource they have. The accommodations are quite inadequate to the needs, and prevent any possible thought of classification. The old and young, frequently ten and twelve in one cell, are crowded together, regardless of the influence of the recurrent criminal over the young offender, thus making our prison a veritable school of crime, and creating, rather than diminishing criminals. This injustice of the State to her unfortunates and the necessity of making some effort at reformation through a better system of prison discipline have influenced many of the best men and women of our community and State to some practical movement. The Delaware Union for Public Good, one of the outgrowths of our State Charities Conference, took up for its first line of work the prison question; and through its earnest practical effort for a year and the influence of the president, Chief Justice Charles B. Love, there is hope of obtaining through our recent legislature the passage of a bill providing for a State penitentiary or workhouse. The bill passed the lower house without a dissenting voice, but was lost in the Senate by a tie vote. This disappointment only gives impetus for renewed effort for its accomplishment at our next session.

Great encouragement was felt at our last annual Conference by increased co-operation, as practically shown by reports from twenty-three charitable and philanthropic organizations, telling of the substantial assistance, ample protection, or home extended to those unable to help themselves, and the encouragement and assistance to place the weak and doubting ones on their own resources. One of the most effective factors in this we feel to be the kindergarten schools.

The demands upon our Associated Charities during the past year for employment by the self-respecting poor have necessitated the establishment in a small way of two new auxiliaries to our work, a wood-yard for men and a work-room for women, compensating them in fuel, food, or clothing. This has proved to be an invaluable aid in preserving self-respect and self-reliance, as well as a test of those who really want to work. It is hoped this will grow to larger proportions and remain permanent.

DISTRICT OF COLUMBIA.

BY HENRY B. F. MACFARLAND, CORRESPONDING SECRETARY.

The public charitable work of the District of Columbia is in need of better organization, and until that is secured cannot be regarded as satisfactory, in spite of what has been accomplished by the numerous independent institutions and relief organizations in the way of caring for the dependent and the destitute. The indoor relief is provided through institutions of which a few are purely federal, a few purely municipal, a few purely private, and the larger number private institutions receiving State aid, some of them wholly supported by it. Until 1890, when Congress created the office of Superintendent of Charities, with a view to having the work of these institutions receiving public money co-ordinated and their expenditures supervised by a representative of the tax-payers and of the government, there was no effective attempt to systematize the indoor relief work. The first Superintendent of Charities, after making a brave effort to carry out the purpose of the act, stated in his second annual report that it was not practicable for a Superintendent of Charities, and especially for a non-resident of the District of Columbia, as the law required him to be, to accomplish the task of bringing the institutions to work under a general plan and with greater efficiency and economy; and he therefore recommended the abolition of his office, and the creation of a District Board of Charities and Correction. Congress did not abolish the office, however; and the superintendent resigned. He had failed to do what could not be done; but in his two annual reports, although the first was obliged to be made within three months after he took office, he brought out all the facts of the situation more fully and graphically than they had ever been presented before, and he succeeded in getting Congress to create a Board of Children's Guardians, a Municipal Lodging-house and Wood and Stone Yard, both of which were greatly needed, as their success in the face of difficulties has demonstrated. The Board of Children's Guardians was created to take charge of all the child-caring work of the District of Columbia, for which appropriations were made from public funds; and the private institutions which have been receiving State aid were to look to it for compensation for the actual work which they did for its wards. The new Superintendent of Charities

promptly withdrew the recommendation of his predecessor for the abolition of the office, together with the recommendations for the establishment of the National Bureau of Charities and Correction and a District Board of Charities and Correction.

The outdoor relief is carried on partly through the District Commissioners with public funds, but chiefly through private organizations, some of which receive aid from public funds, and are not brought into co-operation under any permanent organization. During the past two severe winters a committee of citizens appointed by the District Commissioners on behalf of the community, called the Central Relief Committee, has collected from the citizens, and distributed through the different organizations, large sums of money.

Congress appropriates annually (half from the taxes of the District of Columbia and half from the Treasury of the United States, which owns over half the property in the District of Columbia) about $350,000 for charitable work, chiefly for indoor relief in the institutions above described. It is estimated that the citizens contribute privately upward of $150,000 a year besides. Having Congress to deal with, any central organization for supervising the charitable work of the District must be official. Therefore, the Committee on Charities of the Washington Board of Trade reported, and the Board of Trade adopted, on April 26, 1895, the following resolution: —

Resolved, That Congress be asked to abolish the office of Superintendent of Charities for the District of Columbia, and to create a Board of Charities to consist of nine citizens of the District of Columbia, to be appointed by the Commissioners of the District of Columbia, who shall serve without pay, and who shall have the general supervision of all the public charitable work of the District of Columbia in and out of institutions receiving aid from the revenues of the District of Columbia (except those which are strictly correctional or educational or which belong to the federal government) and the direction of permanent and outdoor relief of the destitute.

The Board of Trade directed the Committee on Charities to procure the necessary legislation from Congress, and the attempt will be made to do this at the next session. This plan of organizing all the public charitable work will, it is believed, be practicable and valuable. It is not regarded as an ideal plan, but as the best practicable project for the improvement of charity work in the District of Columbia under the peculiar conditions here existing. The Board, which would be composed of our best citizens, and would have an

expert executive officer, would combine the duties and functions of the Superintendent of Charities for the District of Columbia and of a charity organization society, and in the circumstances would, it is believed, be the best possible form of central supervisory organization for Washington's charitable work.

SUPPLEMENTARY REPORT.

BY COLONEL JOHN TRACEY, UNITED STATES SUPERINTENDENT OF CHARITIES FOR THE DISTRICT OF COLUMBIA.

Certain characteristics render the charitable and correctional system in the District of Columbia particularly worthy of careful, candid, and instructive observation.

So far as regards official support or aid, the rule is that half the expenses are borne by the people of the United States at large and half by the tax-payers of the District.

To this there are, however, certain exceptions, as in the cases of Garfield and Providence Hospitals, whose appropriations are wholly at the expense of the United States Treasury.

Another distinctive feature of the capital city and District is of an ethnological nature. Of the 270,514 inhabitants of the District of Columbia, as ascertained by the latest enumeration, one-third — 90,000 — are colored.

Approximately, the public money expended annually in the District of Columbia for charities, reformatories, and minor correction of local origin or relation, is half a million dollars.

There are few centres of population relatively better equipped than our capital city, or where fewer pressing wants remain to be supplied. The great government establishment for the insane at St. Elizabeth's affords opportunity for care of the mentally alienated at a cost to the District of $100,000 a year. So with the deaf and dumb who receive instruction at the Columbia Institution at a District charge of $10,500, while children of feeble mind are supported at the Pennsylvania Institute and at an establishment in Virginia near Washington. The hospitals and public dispensaries receiving official appropriations are 10 in number. The asylums and homes for children, including 2 foundling asylums, are 11. There are 4 homes for the aged, separate or in combination with other establishments, and 3 for young women. There are 4 reform schools and

2 industrial schools, a municipal lodging-house for wayfarers, and a Temporary Home for Union Veterans awaiting settlement of their back pay or claims. A model small-pox hospital is provided for, and during the present summer will replace the makeshift establishment in use for several recent years. There are in all 36 institutions and benevolent organizations for which Congress makes appropriations, by way of entire support or partial aid as compensation for the maintenance of public charges.

It would be very unjust to the people of the District of Columbia to omit mention of the important fact that there are an equal number of benevolent establishments doing vast good which receive no official funds whatever, and are maintained entirely by private charity. This list includes such model establishments as the Home for Incurables, the Home for the Aged of the Little Sisters of the Poor, and the Washington City Protestant Orphan Asylum. A bill for a Home for Inebriates, which narrowly failed of passage at the last session of Congress, will probably be enacted next winter, as will also provision for separate care for and preservation of colored girls of wayward tendency, which the Reform School for Girls, as now constituted, does not adequately provide.

Of organizations maintained entirely by public cost the most recently established that are now in full operation are the Board of Children's Guardians, the Reform School for Colored Girls, and the Municipal Lodging-house.

Of the wards of the Board of Children's Guardians a majority are colored. The National Colored Home cares for 111 negro children. For aged colored men and women there is official provision in connection with the Washington Asylum, the Freedmen's Hospital, and the National Colored Home, while unofficial but suitable and generous care is given by the Little Sisters of the Poor. The Boys' Reform School receives colored as well as white children for industrial and literary education, and the wild and wayward, as well as those sentenced by courts. The Reform School for Girls is entirely devoted to the African race. At the Freedmen's Hospital about three-fifths are colored; and a very nearly similar proportion obtains in the Washington Asylum, the strictly public institution of the District, which combines almshouse, workhouse, and hospital. Columbia Hospital for Women, an institution to which the government contributes annually $20,000 for maintenance, besides sums needed for con-

struction and enlargement, has more colored patients than white. It has an admirable training school, as also has the Freedmen's Hospital, the latter utilized entirely for colored nurses, who have shown already, during the first year of systematic work in advanced instruction, signal ability and adaptability for their profession. There are now in Washington five well-equipped training schools for nurses, in connection with the hospitals, including the National Homœopathic Hospital, all of which have been developed during the past five years. At one of the foundling asylums, St. Ann's, colored children are cared for, as well as white children. On the whole, with the exception above noted,— as to colored girls wayward, but not committed as fallen women,— the provision for the care of sick or dependent negroes is in due proportion to their share of the population of the District. There is pending in Congress a measure for the establishment of a United States Home for Aged Negroes from all parts of the country, to be constructed and maintained by the funds now idle in the Treasury, arising from the accumulations of unclaimed bounty and pay of colored soldiers during the war for the Union.

The Municipal Lodging-house and Wood and Stone Yard has already, during the third year of its existence, proved a great public benefit, and has indirectly, but none the less visibly, returned to the District many times its cost, which is limited to an expenditure of $4,000 a year. Its rules exacting work for food and lodging, and limiting the stay of wayfarers to three days, are rigidly enforced. It has kept down the tramp element.

The Temporary Home for Union Veterans, which costs the public $2,500 per year, is used exclusively by strangers, veterans coming to Washington awaiting adjustment of claims. They are maintained there by a District appropriation, although the inmates come solely for federal business. The home is managed by an association of Union veterans, and, like the other eleemosynary establishments of Washington, is under the general direction of the Superintendent of Charities. The Washington charitable system is composite. In official supervision, as practised since 1891 through the Superintendent of Charities, its principle is, in the words of Joseph A. Choate: —

"Wherever a dollar of public money goes to a public or private institution for charitable purposes, it should be followed by public authority so as to control its expenditure, and recall it, if it is found to be not needed or abused."

The great distress of the winter of 1893–94 called for unusual exertion that resulted in the formation of the Central Relief Committee, whose efforts were continued by reappointment by the District Commissioners during last winter. In the first year collections of money and supplies of all kinds were made to the aggregate value of about $50,000; and, so far as regards the operations of the Central Committee, the entire work of collection and distribution was conducted with an outlay of only $750, or 1½ per cent.

During last winter substantially the same work was carried on, with further decreased expenditure for general Central Committee service; the percentage rate being reduced to 1 per cent. Such economy was facilitated not only by the full and free use of the police force — in Washington an admirable distributing agency, systematic in method and prompt in accounting — and also by much valuable service of unofficial associations, but, above all, by the generosity of business men in giving free transportation and food supplies. The money used was entirely of voluntary contribution, with the exception of $10,000 voted by Congress in February.

Relief through work is constantly provided in Washington for the transient element, officially by the Municipal Lodging-house and unofficially by the Central Union Mission; while for women employment is furnished by several associations. The Central Relief Committee, with the concurrence of the District authorities, expended $5,000 for cleaning the streets after the great snow-storm. The result was fairly satisfactory, the chief difficulty being to confine this labor relief to deserving residents, as distinguished from the crowds who flocked into town for employment and free meals from the surrounding country.

A sub-committee of the Central Body is still at work in conjunction with similar committees of the Board of Trade and other unofficial organizations in making a test of the Detroit planting plan as part of an inquiry into the advisability of a permanent and unified relief organization for the District.

SUPPLEMENTARY REPORT.

BY H. W. LEWIS, AGENT OF THE BOARD OF CHILDREN'S GUARDIANS.

The Board of Children's Guardians of the District of Columbia is an official municipal organization, composed of nine members

appointed by the judges of the courts of the District, and is supported wholly by appropriations made by Congress, which alone legislates in the local affairs of the District.

It is the only agency in the District for the reception of dependent and feeble-minded children by authoritative commitment, and it alone is given the legal guardianship of its beneficiaries. It also receives, under commitments by the courts, juvenile delinquents, when such action is preferable to commitment to the reform schools, and receives from the Reform School for Girls those who have earned their discharge on parole.

Its work in any particular case begins with a report or application on behalf of the children to be taken in charge, and includes, after such report or application, a careful investigation of the case, a determination as to whether the children probably fall within the provisions of the statute under which the work of the Board is organized, a presentation of the case in court, its adjudication, the placing of the committed children in an appropriate institution or private home, at the expense of the Board, for care and training, for such a length of time as may be necessary, their subsequent transfer to free family homes adapted to their needs and capacities, and, finally, careful supervision during minority.

Taking advantage of its legal guardianship and the large liberty given it in the matter of the disposal of its wards, the Board tries to first understand the history and character of the children who come under its control, and then to deal with each individual in the most helpful way. Nervous, high-strung girls are sent to church institutions, where they are safe, and where the chances are in favor of their improvement. Boys who have too long oscillated between the slums and the jail, but who are not hopelessly bad, are sent to industrial schools. Those with whom milder measures fail, and who cannot be made fit for transfer to family homes, are sent to reformatory institutions. Others are placed on probation in the homes of their parents, subject to the supervision of the Board. Those taken from drunken and neglectful parents may be restored after parents have satisfactorily passed a probation period of six months, the children remaining under the protection of public authority. Infants and delicate children are boarded out. Places are secured where unmarried mothers can go with their babes, the services rendered by the mother being accepted as payment for her maintenance.

An effort is made to prevent the separation of mothers and infants, whenever possible.

The Board maintains no institution, but it has working arrangements with a number of them which receive its wards at rates agreed upon.

Not bound by sectarianism or inflexible rules, regarding neither race, creed, nor condition, it is ever ready to do the best thing on the shortest notice for every child.

The whole number of children committed to the Board during the period beginning July 1, 1893, and ending April 30, 1895, was 296, of whom 243 were under guardianship at the latter date.

FLORIDA.

BY HENRY L. FELKEL, PRINCIPAL FLORIDA INSTITUTE FOR THE BLIND AND DEAF AND DUMB.

The Florida Institute for the Blind and Deaf and Dumb is located at St. Augustine. It was established in 1885, and has a capacity of 84 pupils. The number present Dec. 31, 1894, was 50. The expense per inmate is reported at $164.14. The value of the property is reported at $26,000.

No important legislation is reported for Florida during the past two years. The only other State institution is the State Insane Asylum at Chattahoochee. The State convicts are leased out.

GEORGIA.

BY SUPERINTENDENTS OF STATE INSTITUTIONS.

The Georgia School for the Deaf at Cave Spring was established in 1846. It has a capacity of about 200 pupils. The number on hand July 31 was 93 whites and 31 negroes,— total, 124. The current expense per inmate is reported at $168.62.

The Georgia State Lunatic Asylum, located at Milledgeville, was established in 1837. The fair capacity of the institution without overcrowding, for inmates only, is 1,550; but the number on hand June 30, 1895, was 1,788. The number on hand Dec. 31, 1893, was 1,676, making an increase of 112 patients in eighteen months. The current expense per patient is reported at $108.60. The only other

State institution of the State of Georgia is the Academy for the Blind at Macon. The State convicts are leased out.

IDAHO.

BY DR. JOHN N. GIVENS, CORRESPONDING SECRETARY.

Idaho has completed and furnished a Soldiers' Home. Legislation to build and equip a reform school was attempted, but failed.

The law by which patients have heretofore been brought to the State Insane Asylum by sheriffs for 30 cents per mile, travelled one way, has been changed, and an attendant is now sent from the asylum after the patient. The cost of the present plan is less than one-half of the former arrangement, and the patients are brought to the asylum in a rather more comfortable manner.

The State Insane Asylum has bought another tract of land, and it now has in its farm 2,100 acres. About one-half of it is good farming land, and one-half is pasture land.

The proper feeding of the patients is the greatest problem of an asylum, and it seems that the only way to solve it is for the asylum to produce its own eatables as far as it can. As long as roast duck, currant jelly, and strawberries and cream, and tenderloin steak are to be figured out of the per capita cost of feeding the patient he is not likely to have many of these delicacies; but, if the asylum can have the land and the patient's labor can be turned back to him in eatables, there is no reason why he may not get them. Therefore, the Idaho Insane Asylum has tried to get, if not all, at least its share of the land that joins it.

In the State penitentiary most of the prisoners have been kept at work the past two years in building a substantial, high stone wall around the prison. The prisoners seem to be the better for the employment, and the State has gained that much valuable property.

ILLINOIS.

BY MRS. GLEN WOOD, CORRESPONDING SECRETARY.

Illinois is somewhat behind some of the older States in her system of charity work, yet it is believed that her efforts in this work will be greatly improved in this and coming years.

In legislative lines she has taken aggressive measures; and some important bills have passed during the present session, and others are now pending in our legislature. Of those already passed is the bill to provide for and aid training schools for boys, also an important bill to establish the Western Illinois Hospital for the Insane, and to regulate the commitment of insane persons thereto. A bill for the prevention of blindness, now being discussed, will undoubtedly pass, as it is of great importance, and is strongly urged by our senators. A bill to authorize judges to release certain children from custody of poorhouses, and to make contracts with persons for their support, maintenance, and education, has passed the House, and will undoubtedly pass the Senate. This is one of the most needed reforms of our State.

A very important bill was passed March 7,— "to regulate the Civil Service of Cities." This bill provides that the mayor of each city in the State shall appoint three persons, who shall constitute and be known as the Civil Service Commission of such city,— one for three years, one for two years, and one for one year from time of appointment. The duties of these commissioners are varied: First, to classify all offices and places of employment in each city. The offices so classified by the commission shall constitute the classified service of the city. Second, a set of rules are to be enforced for the government of commission and appointments. Third, a register shall be kept of all proceedings of this commission. In fact, this bill covers a very large field, and bids fair to revolutionize the service of our large cities. It is a great gain over anything hitherto achieved, and for it we are profoundly thankful.

A bill to establish the Illinois State Colony of Epileptics, so much needed, is now apparently dead.

Fruitless efforts have been made to prohibit the issuing of life insurance to persons under sixteen years of age.

Another bill is advanced to the third reading,— to support certain dependent children in homes other than poorhouses, to create a State Board of Guardians for the supervision and care of dependent and neglected children, and to rescue neglected children.

Among the many worthy bills now before our legislature, it is hoped that every phase of work will be cared for, and that greater benefit will result to every class of dependants.

A State Industrial Home for the Blind was opened Jan. 1, 1895,

in Chicago. At present the inmates number 26,— 24 men and 2 women. Broom-making is the only industry as yet introduced. The home, when completed, will accommodate 100.

In 1893, when the financial crash came, there was created what was termed the Central Relief Association. When the revival of business made it seem wise to discontinue this relief work and depend upon the regular charity organizations, there still remained in the hands of those in charge of the emergency society many valuable files,— of some thirty thousand names,— which it seemed unwise to destroy : hence the permanent organization of what is now called the Bureau of Charities. Consequently there was started in a modest way what may be termed a clearing-house for the various organizations of the city.

The establishment of settlements in the city has grown rapidly, the Hull House taking the lead under the direct supervision of Miss Jane Addams. There are now seven settlements in Chicago.

In reviewing the work of the State, it is pleasant to note another step in the right direction. At the solicitation of the State Board of Charities the governor has directed that women physicians must be placed in all the State hospitals for the insane. Also the Board has obtained the appointment of internes in the insane hospitals. These internes are appointed by competitive examinations, and the position is open to men and women alike.

A Juvenile Reformatory for girls has been temporarily opened in Chicago during the past year, pending the erection of a beautiful new home at Geneva, Ill.

All of our local charities are making advances along their separate lines. The Children's Aid Society of Chicago in October, 1894, associated its work with that of the Children's Home Society, the object being to extend the work and economize labor and expense.

INDIANA.

BY ERNEST BICKNELL, CORRESPONDING SECRETARY.

The biennial session of the General Assembly of Indiana was held during the months of January, February, and March, 1895. During the session many measures bearing directly upon the public charitable and correctional interests of the State were introduced and discussed. Those which failed of passage were the following : —

A bill for the establishment of a State School for Dependent Children, patterned after the Michigan system, prepared by the Board of State Charities. It received much favor, and would no doubt have become law had it not been that both of the great political parties had pledged themselves to establish a State Soldiers' Home.

A bill was introduced in the Senate for the establishment of five reformatories for men, to be located in different sections of the State. It was argued that this would save transportation expenses, and would enable the advantageous employment of the convicts in farm work and in the construction and repair of public roads. Not passed.

A bill introduced in the House, providing for the payment to convicts, upon discharge, of 10 per cent. of their earnings while in prison, failed.

Another bill which failed placed upon each township the burden of its own public outdoor poor relief. The present county system encourages extravagance and loose methods; and it was believed that, if each township was required to bear its own burden, the local officers in charge of levying taxes and distributing relief would be more careful, and could be held in stricter account.

A bill which passed the Senate, but failed in the House, provided for the removal of any veterans of the late war from poor asylums to comfortable boarding-houses, there to be maintained at the expense of their respective counties.

A bill for the establishment of the merit system in the employment, promotion, and discharge of all employees in the State charitable and correctional institutions passed the House by a large majority, but failed of passage in the Senate. This bill added to the present duties of the Board of State Charities those of a civil service commission. Public sentiment in favor of the elimination of politics from the management of the State institutions is rapidly growing, as shown by the favor with which this bill was received, and as further shown by the enactment of a law concerning the management of the State benevolent institutions noted elsewhere in this report.

The laws enacted by the legislature relating to the corrections and charities are as follows: —

An appropriation of $75,000 was made for the construction of buildings for a State Soldiers' Home upon a tract of land given for the purpose at the city of Lafayette. Work has already begun upon the Home, and it will probably be ready for occupancy within a year.

A law was enacted requiring a license fee of $500 per annum from any person dealing in convict-made goods from other States, and requiring such goods to be plainly marked "Convict-made."

A commission of three senators was appointed to investigate the practicability of employing convicts in the constructing of public roads, and to report at the legislative session of 1897.

A law was passed for the transfer of insane convicts to insane hospitals, the hospital to which an insane convict shall be sent to be designated by the governor in each instance.

Another new law concerning convicts provides that a prisoner upon discharge from State prison shall be returned by the State to the county in which he was convicted.

In the direction of regulating expenditures for outdoor poor relief a law was enacted, requiring township overseers of the poor to keep a complete record of all relief given. This record must be filed with the county commissioners for approval. A copy of the record is also required to be forwarded to the Board of State Charities. By means of this law it is expected that expenditures for outdoor relief will be more rigidly scrutinized, and information as to the number of recipients of aid in the State, never heretofore secured, will be assured. Expenditures for outdoor relief by overseers of the poor in Indiana in 1894 were $586,000, an increase of $75,000 over the preceding year.

Of the eight benevolent institutions supported by the State, six have heretofore been in the hands of partisan boards of trustees. Salaries ranging from $300 to $600 a year were paid the trustees. The legislature of 1895 placed all the benevolent institutions in the hands of bi-partisan boards of control, and all salaries were abolished. All political tests in appointments or discharges are forbidden.

In the name of economy the legislature reduced the annual maintenance appropriations for all of the benevolent institutions. In several cases the reduction was false economy, and will prove costly in the end.

Appropriations amounting to $100,000 were made for the extension of capacity of the insane hospitals; and $30,000 was appropriated to purchase a farm for the School for Feeble-minded and enlarge its hospital. It is believed that the capacity of the insane hospitals will be increased 300 patients or more in the aggregate by the appropriations made.

The annual appropriation for the maintenance of the Board of State Charities was increased from $5,000 to $6,000. The Board has now been in existence six years. It was created by a Democratic legislature, and until this year has had no experience with any except Democratic legislatures. This year, however, the legislature was strongly Republican; and some fear was expressed by friends of the Board that it would not receive the same friendly treatment which it had previously enjoyed. These fears were groundless, as the Republican legislature in many ways showed itself to be friendly and appreciative of the work which the Board has done and is attempting to do.

PAUPERS AND PUBLIC POOR RELIEF.

	Inmates, October 31.	*Cost.*
County poor asylums, 1894	3,731	$257,581.44
County poor asylums, 1893	3,459	250,847.50
Increase, 1894	272	$6,733.94
Outdoor relief, 1894		$586,232.27
Outdoor relief, 1893		511,503.35
Increase, 1894		$74,728.92
Total cost of public poor relief, excluding orphan asylums, 1894		$843,813.71
Increase, 1894		81,462.86

DEPENDENT CHILDREN.

	Inmates, Oct. 31, 1894.	*Cost,* 1894.
Soldiers' and Sailors' Orphans' Home	644	$100,000.00
County orphan asylums	1,289	123,187.42
County poor asylums	520	38,740.00
Total	2,453	$261,927.42
Orphan asylums not supported from public funds	723	53,853.50
Grand total	3,176	$315,780.92

INDIAN TERRITORY.

BY REV. R. W. HILL, D.D., CORRESPONDING SECRETARY.

But little legislation affecting the institutions of the Territory has been effected since the last report. The most important legislation, however, will soon indirectly affect the prison system by causing the

erection of several new jails under care of United States marshals. A law was enacted by the last Congress a few days before its close, by which the United States courts in the Territory are much changed. Instead of one judge there are now three. Where heretofore we have had one district, with three places to hold court, we have now three districts, with a total of thirteen places where the United States judges hold regular terms; and in addition a Supreme Court has been established. But this is not all. The United States commissioners are now justices of the peace with final jurisdiction over misdemeanors. Thus the change is being made which will more thoroughly enforce law, while in 1896 the vicious system giving courts in Texas and Arkansas exclusive jurisdiction over felonies committed in Indian Territory will cease. But the increased jurisdiction now conferred on the United States courts in Indian Territory has required a change in the United States marshal's offices, and henceforth each district has its own marshal. This will secure greater vigilance, and will introduce changes in the jail system. At each place of holding court new jails are in contemplation; but they will be simply hold-overs, as all prisoners convicted of felony are sent to Detroit.

Charities are at present largely unorganized. The orphan asylums are maintained as heretofore, but there is nothing for the benefit of the needy white people. With the changes which are hoped for, whereby political privileges will be granted to white residents, the charities will be looked after; but until such time nothing can be accomplished.

IOWA.

BY MRS. F. A. MILLARD, CORRESPONDING SECRETARY.

Our legislature, which was in session a year ago, passed only one bill — except that providing for a new insane hospital — bearing upon the work of charities and correction,— that authorizing the trustees of the industrial schools to let the inmates out on parole.

Bills to create a State Board of Charities and county boards of guardians for children, to punish heads of families who refused to support those dependent upon them, to amend the tramp law, and to authorize county boards of supervisors to send habitual drunkards to a Keeley Institute at county expense, all failed to pass.

The general indifference in the State to the principles of scientific charity and correction is, I believe, gradually giving way to a more progressive view of these principles. I think I may also venture to say that the experience of the winter of 1893–94 in emergency relief work in various parts of the State has taught us a lesson in the wise administration of relief, by which we profited in the winter of 1894–95.

The bill of the last legislature providing for a fourth insane hospital committed Iowa to the policy of State care for the insane. When the new buildings, which are to be erected according to the most approved plans, are ready for occupation, there will be room in the State institutions for all our insane.

KANSAS.

BY SUPERINTENDENTS OF STATE INSTITUTIONS.

Kansas has two insane asylums, with a united capacity of 1,475 patients. The number present Dec. 31, 1894, was 1,539, kept at an annual cost of $151 per capita. The institutions have been seriously damaged by political manipulation. The Institution for the Deaf and Dumb had 230 pupils Dec. 31, 1894, kept at $169.50 per capita. Kindergarten work and oral work have been introduced. The Institution for the Education of the Blind had 86 pupils, kept at a cost per pupil of $204. In this school the quantity of milk has been doubled, the use of tea and coffee has been diminished, and calisthenics have been introduced, to the great benefit of the pupils.

The law governing the Soldiers' Orphans' Home has been changed so as to admit all dependent and neglected children. The sum of $91,800 was appropriated for buildings and improvements for this purpose, thus placing Kansas abreast of Massachusetts, Michigan, Minnesota, and Wisconsin. The home contained 129 children Dec. 31, 1895, kept at a per capita cost of $144.

The Asylum for Idiots and Imbecile Youth contained 97 inmates June 30, 1894; and there were 228 applications still on file. 11 boys in this institution have been subjected to castration as a cure for masturbation. This step was taken after exhausting every other means and on consultation with three eminent surgeons. The superintendent reports "a very marked improvement in nine of them mentally and all of them physically."

The Industrial School for Girls contained 98 inmates Dec. 31, 1895, per capita cost $139. The Reform School for Boys contained 211 boys June 30, 1894,—a very small number relatively. The State Soldiers' Home contained 289 men Dec. 31, 1894. There has been a marked increase in the population, owing to the hard times.

The State penitentiary contained 942 convicts July 1, 1892, employed largely in mining coal. It is expected that the new State reformatory at Hutchinson will be opened July 1, 1895.

KENTUCKY.

BY SUPERINTENDENTS OF STATE INSTITUTIONS.

The three hospitals for insane at Lexington, Lakeland, and Hopkinsville, have a united capacity of about 2,000 patients; but the hospitals are overcrowded. The legislature appropriates $150 per capita for each patient instead of $135 as formerly. The legislature of 1895 appropriated $65,000 for new buildings at Hopkinsville and Lakeland asylums. The Institution for the Education of Deaf-mutes has a capacity of 300. The number of inmates Dec. 31, 1894, was 227. The Institution for the Education of the Blind has a capacity of 140, and contained 130 inmates, kept at an expense of $230 each. The Institution for Feeble-minded Children at Frankfort has a capacity of 250; and the number present Dec. 31, 1894, was only 104. The State penitentiary at Frankfort has 1,188 cells, and contained Nov. 30, 1894, 1,156 prisoners. Kentucky has no State juvenile reformatory; but the city of Louisville maintains a House of Refuge, which has a high reputation.

LOUISIANA.

BY MICHEL HEYMANN, CORRESPONDING SECRETARY.

The statistics of the several State and city charitable institutions remain virtually the same as last year.

A bill for the creation of a State Board of Charities similar to that of Ohio was introduced in the last legislature. After being considerably amended, it passed the Senate, but was rejected by the House. We shall try again next year. Several bills for the protection of dependent children have passed.

The Society for the Prevention of Cruelty to Children has done much good work. Abandoned and ill-treated children have been protected, and placed in good private families, asylums, or in the Waifs' Home.

The Conference of Charities (a misnomer) has relieved as many poor persons as their limited means have permitted. This conference, which is unsectarian, was started in 1881; and the constitution contains all the advanced principles of modern charity,—registration, friendly visiting, etc. However, these principles remain theories; and very little practical effect has been obtained, owing to the lack of sympathy with this noble work.

It is proposed by a few zealous members of the Association to put their shoulders to the wheel, arouse the public spirit, and start seriously a charity organization, such as exists in other large cities.

Some friends of this movement are in favor of inviting one or more of the eminent men of the National Conference of Charities and Correction to address the citizens of the Crescent City, and make them acquainted with the objects of the Conference.

Let us hope that the Twenty-third Annual Conference will be held in New Orleans; and I do not doubt a moment that, as a consequence, the charities of Louisiana will be revolutionized, and that our dear State will soon take rank among the foremost in the field of charities and corrections.

MAINE.

BY MRS. L. M. N. STEVENS, CORRESPONDING SECRETARY.

Maine has made some advancement in charitable and correctional work during the last two years.

The managers of the Maine Industrial School for Girls have planned the erection of a third building, in order to afford better classification and to carry out more fully the family plan. The Reform School for Boys has also been improved along the same line.

Maine has its share of homes and orphan asylums for children, among the best of which is Good-will Farm, a home for boys, on the cottage plan. A new cottage has been built recently.

Undoubtedly, the child-caring work in its most improved method is carried out by the Woman's Christian Temperance Union through its department of "Securing Homes for Homeless Children." Dur-

ing the last two years a large number of children have been temporarily cared for, and have been placed in good permanent homes by adoption.

Recently there has been established at Newport a home for disabled soldiers and their wives.

Not much advance has been made in prison reform. Efforts to secure a reformatory prison for women have repeatedly failed. While there are but 4 women in the State prison, others are in the jails without any special reformatory influences. There are now 159 men in the State prison. Two years ago there were 125.

In some of our cities there are excellent associated charities, notably in Portland and Bangor. At the latter place the society is comparatively new, but does most efficient, systematic work.

There has been within the last year a slight increase of pauperism in the cities, largely due to an influx of foreigners of an objectionable character. With their drinking habits and their inability to find work, or their disinclination to perform it, they add largely to the pauperism in Maine.

There has been some advance in regard to the care and treatment of the insane. At the hospital in Augusta efforts are being made to do more for the patients in the line of diversion and in judicious manual employment. Musical agencies have been increased, likewise reading material and out-of-door amusements. The last legislature appropriated $150,000 for further provision for the insane, and directed that a committee should be appointed to attend to the erection of an institution for the insane, to be situated in Bangor.

The State of Maine aims to care well for its dependants, delinquents, and criminals, but is not so alert as some of the larger States in adopting some measures and plans which would undoubtedly be for the best good of the State. I refer specially to a State Board of Charities and Correction. I hope such may become established in the near future.

SUPPLEMENTARY REPORT.

BY MRS. HELEN COFFIN BEEDY.

Maine is the youngest, the largest, the cleanest, the most healthful, the most conservative, and the most modest of the New England States. Her territory is so extended that local boards for her charitable institutions are deemed more effective than a State Board, though all of her institutions are open to State inspection.

In its work for humanity Maine has aimed at the fountain-head of crime and misery,— the drink problem. Not many years ago there were 35 distilleries and 2 breweries running night and day,— to-day not one. There are boys and girls in Maine who have never seen a drunken person. There are towns in Maine without a single pauper.

A very beautiful charity not mentioned in the report is largely carried on in Maine,— summer outings to children and overworked and invalid women. Nearly every town in Maine entertains in summer more or less of these from the cities of the United States.

MARYLAND.

BY MISS KATE M. MCLANE, CORRESPONDING SECRETARY.

Maryland has biennial sessions of the legislature. Therefore, our legislature, fortunately, has not been in session since the last Conference; but the most important legacy of correctional legislation from the session of 1894, "The Suspension of Sentence for Juvenile Offenders Bill," has proven in the nine cases under its operation most valuable. The experienced and able secretary of the Maryland Prisoners' Aid Association considers this Parole before Sentence Act the only means of saving boys convicted of petty crimes from the moral infection inseparable from juvenile prison life, and has asked me to hand to the Secretary of this Conference the full text of the act, for incorporation in our Proceedings.

The law of 1894, authorizing certain counties to employ prisoners and tramps on public highways and improvements, has not been enforced, and will not be until public opinion demands it.

It has been practically decided to build the new insane asylum (for which the last legislature appropriated $75,000) on a farm adjoining the present House of Correction in Baltimore County. This location will reduce the current expenses of the asylum, as excellent water, fresh vegetables, dairy produce, and all necessary outside labor can be supplied by the House of Correction.

Charity Organization Societies were organized in February at Annapolis and Hagerstown, Frederick County, and Chestertown, Kent County. Both formed Relief Committees last winter, whose aim was to prevent duplication and assure efficacy of relief during

a winter of exceptional distress. These temporary associations will, it is hoped, become permanent ones. So much for the State.

In Baltimore City a beginning has been made, through a small city appropriation of $500, for two successive summers toward free baths. On the other hand, an ordinance to incorporate into the city school system the cooking school for public school girls (carried on for three years by private subscription) was defeated, as also an ordinance authorizing the appointment of women on the school board; but the agitation in connection with both these measures will bear fruit in the future.

Real growth is shown in the line of care for children. The House of the Good Shepherd, under the care of the Sisters of St. Joseph, has added a department for colored girls, with some 50 inmates. The Catholics have also opened a new country home, "Hopewell," for children. The Children's Playground Association this month christened in South Baltimore its first playground; and after many heroic and unsuccessful efforts the Charity Organization Society has prevailed upon a police justice, under an existing ordinance, to commit three children for begging on the streets to the Home of the Friendless for thirty days. St. Paul's Orphan Asylum for Female Children, in a large new house, proposes to give the girls some industrial training; while the Baltimore Orphan Asylum has provided an isolating ward, and sends its boys and girls to the public schools. This example of separating orphan children during school hours from the abnormal atmosphere of institutional life will certainly influence other Baltimore orphanages.

The most mortifying fact which I have to report is that during the past winter $17,566 in cash and large quantities of food and clothing were sent to the Baltimore police stations, and distributed to the poor by the uniformed officers of the law. This mass of emotional relief not only cut down the receipts of established agencies of relief, but sowed seeds of vice and pauperism which no amount of intelligent almsgiving was able to neutralize.

CHAPTER 402.

AN ACT to add an additional section to Article 27 of the Code of Public General Laws, title "Crimes and Punishments," sub-title "Sentence," to be designated as Section 304 A.

SECTION 1. Be it enacted by the General Assembly of Maryland, That an additional section, to be designated as Section 304 A, be, and the same is hereby,

added to Article 27 of the Code of Public General Laws, title "Crimes and Punishments," sub-title "Sentence," to follow Section 304, and to read as follows: —

304 A. In any case in which a person is convicted, before any court, of larceny, or false pretences, or any other offence not capital, and no previous conviction is proved against him, if it appears to the court before whom he is so convicted, that, regard being had to the youth, character, and antecedents of the offender, to the nature of the offence, and to any extenuating circumstances under which the offence was committed, it is expedient that the offender be released on probation of good conduct, the court may, instead of sentencing him at once to any punishment, direct that he be released on his entering into a recognizance, with or without sureties; and, during such period as the court may direct, to appear and receive judgment when called upon, and in the mean time to keep the peace and be of good behavior. And the court may, if it thinks fit, direct that the offender shall pay the costs of the prosecution, or some portion of the same, within such period and in such instalments as may be directed by the court; and at any time within such period, but not afterwards, the court may, upon being satisfied by information on oath that the offender has failed to observe any of the conditions of his recognizance, issue process for his apprehension, and thereupon, without any further proceedings, impose sentence upon him.

Approved April 6, 1894.

MASSACHUSETTS.

Whatever progress has been made in carrying on the charitable and correctional work of Massachusetts during the last two years has been chiefly in efforts toward a better administration of long-tried and approved methods rather than in the introduction of any new modes of action. The Hospital for Dipsomaniacs and Inebriates was opened on the 6th of February, 1893. From that date to Sept. 30, 1894, there were committed 324 persons, and there remained at the close of the year 110. The workings of this institution have not as yet fully met the hopes expressed at the time of its establishment. Over 40 per cent. of those who had been inmates were reported as doing well, and 14 per cent. more had improved in their habits. There was at first a manifest carelessness on the part of committing magistrates in sending to the hospital persons unfit for its treatment, but latterly greater care has been used in that respect.

The Asylum for Chronic Insane, authorized in 1892, is approaching completion, and will be ready for patients during the current year. Its opening will greatly relieve the overcrowded hospitals.

Considerable progress has been made in the matter of Training Schools for Nurses in connection with the insane hospitals of the

State. Such schools are now an established part of various hospitals, and are found of great value.

The necessity of a hospital for epileptics has been urged upon the legislature for several years; and favorable action is at last likely to be speedily taken, and thus a long-needed want will be supplied.

The State Primary School for Indigent and Neglected Children, established in 1866, and at one time having an average of 537 pupils, will probably cease to exist as such before the close of the present year. For some years, in consequence of the action of the State Board of Lunacy and Charity in placing such children as formerly were sent to that institution at board in families, the number has been steadily diminishing. Arrangements have been made to place all such children at once in families instead of collecting them in considerable numbers in the school. The new method has thus far worked very satisfactorily, and promises to be not merely useful, but economical as well.

The only laws of importance of the last two years affecting penal institutions are the acts relating to the release of prisoners from the State farm, under which special deduction of time may be made, and the act for the release of prisoners from the State prison on parole. Some other laws affecting the details of administration have been enacted, but they do not change the general policy of the State. Last year a special report upon a new State prison, which should combine the congregate and separate systems of imprisonment under one management, was presented to the legislature. The report was referred to the General Court of 1895, but no action has yet been taken on the matter.

MICHIGAN.

BY DR. JAMES A. POST, CORRESPONDING SECRETARY.

The following are the most important changes made and being made by the legislature of Michigan during the present session and since our last report: —

A bill providing for the paroling of convicts has been introduced, with a fair prospect of becoming a law. This bill authorizes the governor to issue a permit to go at large to any prisoner who is now or may hereafter be placed in confinement, except those who are

serving life sentences or those who have served two previous sentences for felony. No prisoner can be paroled except by recommendation of the Board of Control of the prison where the prisoner is confined. The prisoner remains in theory always in custody, his parole not acting as a release. He may be taken back to the prison at any time on the warrant of the governor. Incidentally to the bill, clerks of all Courts of Record are to send to the Board of Control of the prison to which the prisoner is sentenced a statement of the case, with names and residences of witnesses and jurors, character of evidence, and previous character of the prisoner, and the circumstances of aggravation or mitigation of the offence, this record to be prepared within ninety days of the sentencing of any person to confinement for a year or more in State prison, the object of this provision being to give the Board of Control full information about prisoners in their charge, so far as may be developed on the trial.

Private asylums which because of the crowded condition of the State asylums are maintaining State patients are to receive pay for the maintenance of such patients only on the certificate of the State Board of Charities that they are properly cared for.

A law has been enacted providing for the State inspection and certification of all homes where children are indentured, whether placed in such homes from State or private institutions. Provision has also been made whereby persons placing children in homes in Michigan from other States are required to file a bond of $1,000 with the probate judge in the county where the child is placed, providing that such child shall never become a charge either upon the county or upon the State.

An effort is being made to do away with contract prison labor and to provide again for capital punishment in Michigan. It still remains to be demonstrated how many friends these evil propositions have in the State legislature, as these bills have neither of them yet come before either House.

The two new institutions provided for by the preceding legislature, and which were mentioned in our last year's report to the Conference,— namely, a new asylum for insane at Newbury (in the Upper Peninsula) and a Home for the Feeble-minded and Epileptic at Lapeer,— will soon be ready for a limited number of inmates, probably by May 15 or June 1. Both of the institutions are constructed

exclusively on the "cottage plan," making the asylum in the Northern Peninsula the only institution of that character so constructed in the State. The Home for the Feeble-minded and Epileptic will be able to care for about 250 inmates at the beginning, and eventually will probably have to be enlarged.

MINNESOTA.

BY C. P. MAGINNIS, CORRESPONDING SECRETARY.

The State of Minnesota has continued to make progress during the past year. Sept. 1, 1894, a terrible forest fire swept over Pine County, destroying more than 400 lives and leaving 2,700 fire sufferers to be cared for. A State relief commission was organized, and about $150,000 in cash was received and disbursed, besides large quantities of supplies. More than 200 houses were built, and a large number of the people had to be maintained until they could raise a crop. Nearly all of the sufferers have been restored to self-support, and all relief has been withdrawn.

The emergency caused by the panic of 1893 was wisely met by our charitable agencies. So far as we can discover, a very small number of those who received assistance at that time, who were not previously dependent, were pauperized. More care was exercised than ever before to investigate accurately, and to give for the real good of the individual. The people of Minnesota have a lively interest in this line of work, as is indicated by the fact that Minnesota has 71 members of this Conference, being exceeded only by Massachusetts, Connecticut, and New York.

The Minnesota State Conference of Charities held its third meeting in St. Paul in January, 1895. There was a large attendance, and much valuable discussion.

Our insane population continues to increase at the rate of about 7 per cent. per year, which is a good deal more rapid increase than that of the general population. Our criminal population, on the other hand, does not increase; but the number of prisoners in the State is smaller than it was two years ago.

The legislature of 1895 enacted the following important laws: —

1. An act to appropriate money to enlarge the State Hospital for Insane at Fergus Falls, the State Soldiers' Home at Minnehaha

Falls, the State Reformatory at St. Cloud, the School for the Blind, and the School for the Feeble-minded.

2. An act for the establishment of a fourth hospital for the insane in the vicinity of St. Paul and Minneapolis. This institution will be built on the "cottage" plan.

3. An act to change the name of the State Reform School to the "State Training School," and to establish an agency for the care of children after their release, on trial.

4. An act to abolish the contract system at the State prison, and to restrict the number of convicts that can be employed on any one industry to one-tenth of the number of free laborers employed on the same labor in the State. The "piece price plan" is permitted.

5. An act to purchase a new plant for the manufacture of binding twine from sisal and Manila. The State discards $35,000 of machinery formerly used in the manufacturing of hemp binder twine.

6. An act to submit to the people an amendment of the constitution providing for a State Board of Pardons.

7. An act to provide for the treatment of inebriates at the Rochester State Hospital, and authorizing their compulsory employment.

8. An act authorizing the establishment of loaning banks to loan money to the poor at reasonable rates, in order to protect them from the exactions of pawnbrokers and chattel mortgage sharks.

MISSISSIPPI.

BY SUPERINTENDENTS OF STATE INSTITUTIONS.

The Mississippi State Lunatic Asylum was established in 1885. It has a capacity of 800 inmates. The number on hand Dec. 31, 1894, was 739. The current expenses were $109 per inmate. The superintendent reports a gradual improvement in the service for several years past.

The Eastern Mississippi Insane Asylum at Meriden was established in 1884. It has a capacity of 250 inmates. The number on hand Dec. 31, 1893, was 243. The expense per inmate is not reported. The laws have recently been changed, so as to make admission free to all residents of the State.

No other report was received from the State institutions of Mis-

sissippi. There is an institution for the deaf and dumb at Jackson, also an institution for the blind. The State prison is located at Jackson, and the convicts of the State are kept on the lease system.

MISSOURI.

BY MISS MARY E. PERRY, CORRESPONDING SECRETARY.

There have been no radical changes along the line since my report of last year. No new institutions have come into existence, no new offices have been created; but much detail work has been done in the teaching and government, which will result in the comfort and betterment of the dependent and delinquent classes.

The Missouri State penitentiary is the most populous institution of its kind in the country. Dec. 8, 1894, there were 2,000 convicts, under the management of the humane warden, J. L. Pace. Discipline and order have been maintained, although whipping has been abolished. Mr. Pace's rather venturesome experiment of employing the women under contract to the shoe manufacturers has been proven an advantage to them both physically and morally, and also has made this department self-sustaining One-half of the total number of convicts now confined are under twenty-five years of age, and the warden is also grading the convicts more rigidly than has been done heretofore. Governor Stone, appreciating this, has committed many of these youths to the Reform School. The third biennial report of this school shows an amount of good work done; and, of the 299 boys who have gone from this institution, 144 are doing well. L. D. Drake, the superintendent, asked the General Assembly to revise the statute requiring the commitment of the boy until he reaches the age of twenty-one instead of eighteen, as as been heretofore.

At the State Industrial School for Girls there has been much improvement in detail work. A part of their last appropriation will be used in erecting a larger cottage for the accommodation of over 50 pupils, and for the erection of a school building, an entertainment hall, etc.

The law of kindness has been much in evidence in our lunatic asylums. Hypnotics are mostly done away, hygiene and outdoor work having taken their places, and but little mechanical restraint

employed. The State Lunatic Asylum No. 2, at St. Joseph, has lately added to its plant 120 acres. No noticeable changes have occurred in the other institutions.

The Missouri School for the Blind received from the last legislature $200,000 to purchase a site for a new institution, the old building to be sold for not less than $150,000, which, with perhaps an additional appropriation, will enable them to erect a more commodious and better planned house for their separate purposes. The sloyd work, introduced two years ago, has proved a success. The readiness with which the boys handle tools, and the products of their efforts in the various branches of carpentry, convince one that this is a useful branch of work. It is a pleasant deviation, and prepares the boys for work in many directions. This school is having its graduates take a course under a practical and scientific teacher in massage, knowing "that a practised hand and educated touch often detect diseased tissue where sight fails." Offices and operating-rooms have been established in this city, where general, theoretical instructions are first given. This is followed by the operations of the instructor upon the bodies of the pupils; and they, in turn, begin work upon the teacher. "After a certain progress they are sent out on regular visits to patients throughout St. Louis. In France and Switzerland, but more notably in Japan, 'massage treatment' is largely in the hands of the blind."

The women of St. Louis have cause to feel very grateful to the mayor for the confidence he has placed in their ability by appointing them to such responsible positions, two of them being among the managers of the House of Refuge, and two charity commissioners.

$10,000 was raised at the Saturday and Sunday Hospitals and Associations,— an increase of $4,000 over last year.

At the solicitation of the Humanity Club, composed of earnest and influential women of St. Louis, the women prisoners in the jail and hold-over will be removed by day to a separate building from that occupied by the men, with a woman guard to have the entire supervision over them. This club has also been instrumental in having the mayor place all young children found on the streets in some of the seven charitable institutions which have been placed at their disposal for this purpose instead of having them sent to the House of Refuge.

Much work has been done by individual effort and private asso-

ciations, free kindergartens established, Rumford kitchens opened during the past winter in different parts of the city, etc.

The legislature prohibited the county courts from placing the insane in almshouses. Hereafter they will be sent to the State asylum. The age of consent was also raised from sixteen to eighteen years of age. A bill asking for the school age to be five instead of six years was very favorably received by the legislature.

Our latest experiment in charitable work is the Detroit or Pingree plan. This work has just begun, and more than 100 applications have been made for land. The plan promises to meet the wants of a number of unemployed.

SUPPLEMENTARY REPORT.

BY REV. THOMAS M. FINNEY, D.D.

The St. Louis Provident Association was organized March 3, 1860. It was founded and has always been under the management of chief citizens, and does the principal part of the private charity work of the city. It combines relief work with the principles, aims, and methods of organized charity. During the past two years, under the careful management of the present officials, its operations have been greatly improved and enlarged, especially along the lines of methods of self-help, having an established and fully equipped laundry, two sewing-rooms, lodge and day nursery for women, and for men wood-yard and lodge. Its revenue in the fiscal year ending Oct. 31, 1894 was nearly $60,000 obtained by personal solicitation. This year this method of collecting was changed to solicitation by mail, which has proved a decided success, and will be continued. The financial support has always been liberal and sufficient. In all its history there has never been a deficit in meeting its expenses.

MONTANA.

BY MRS. LAURA E. HOWEY, CORRESPONDING SECRETARY.

We have but little to report. The Board is only two years old, with not a cent of money at command, and two of the members of the Board ministers so busy with pastoral duties that visiting institutions or giving much time to this work seemed out of the question.

The following suggestions were made in our report to the governor: the appointing of a matron in the State and county prisons; the doing away with the contract system in care of the poor and insane and criminal classes, or, in short, "the delinquent and dependent classes"; the erection of a wing (in the new prison at Billings, Mont.) for young criminals and women, that each class may be entirely apart.

We have visited and thoroughly inspected the State institutions and 13 out of 21 counties at our own expense. These visits were made without previous notice, and were, for the most part, satisfactory. As yet we do not have a very large pauper element, except in the large cities, like Butte and Helena.

NEBRASKA.

BY A. W. CLARK, CORRESPONDING SECRETARY.

Nebraska has been unable the past two years to make much progress in the fields of charitable and correctional work, owing to failures in crops. Two years ago drought prevailed in large sections of Nebraska, and last year there was a total failure of crops for almost the entire State. Destitution and suffering began early last fall. The whole country responded generously to the appeals sent out, and large quantities of relief supplies came pouring in. Religious denominations quickly organized for the work; and our governor appointed a State Relief Commission, of which Rev. L. P. Ludden, of Lincoln, was made general secretary, and W. N. Nason, of Omaha, president. These appointments were afterward confirmed by the legislature. The volume of business in this relief work the past six months has probably been without a parallel in this country. The State Relief Commission distributed $250,000 cash appropriated by our State legislature, also $35,000 cash sent to them by donations, and in addition to this 3,000 carloads of supplies and thousands of boxes and barrels, making a total of cash and supplies at a low estimate of not less than $500,000. One religious denomination distributed between $30,000 and $40,000 in cash and many carloads of supplies. Other denominations did about the same. It is estimated that Christian bodies, charitable and fraternal societies, and private individuals have distributed in

cash and in supplies not less than $500,000, which, together with that distributed by the Relief Commission, makes a total of $1,000,000 used in relief work. Our State Relief Commission performed their burdensome and perplexing duties judiciously and efficiently, wholly in the interests of all parties concerned.

As to the effect of the droughts and of the relief work upon pauperism in our State, it is impossible to make an intelligent estimate. While some, no doubt, who lived close to the line, have dropped into pauperism, we believe that the great majority of those who have been aided are thrifty citizens, and will be self-dependent in the future. In our judgment, therefore, there has been but little increase of pauperism in our State.

The past two years have been hard ones for our State institutions. Our situation was such two years ago that our legislature cut down appropriations which prevented enlargement and prevented the introduction of new plans of work which otherwise would have been undertaken. No one of the institutions suffered more, perhaps, than the State Industrial School for Boys, which is under the efficient management of J. T. Mallalieu. It was necessary to close several departments of industry, which have been a great calamity in the work. The State penitentiary, however, has made steady progress, under Warden Beemer, in the improved conditions and in the management of the prisoners.

Charity organization work has been gaining ground. The Lincoln Society is the only one in the State that does not give relief direct. It is earnestly hoped that the others will soon adopt this principle, which should be the governing principle of every society. The Lincoln Society has secured the complete co-operation of all the churches of the city. The Omaha Associated Charities has done efficient work the past year, and has a stronger hold upon the people now than ever before. A notable work accomplished by the society recently has been the introduction of the Detroit system of gardening for the poor, which has awakened great interest and has commanded the approval of citizens of Omaha.

The work for homeless and dependent children has received unusual attention of late. Sentiment has rapidly developed in our State against institutional life for children, and in favor of placing them in homes in private families. The Boys' and Girls' Aid Society of Omaha, which is the oldest in the State, has been doing efficient

work. This society has had the co-operation and assistance of Colonel Alexander Hogeland, the newsboys' friend, and founder of the National Home and Employment Association. The Children's Home-finding Society has greatly enlarged its work throughout the State.

Our last legislature was in many respects a good one. We are sorry, however, to report that the bill to create a State Board of Charities did not pass. There was, however, such a growth of opinion in favor of it that we shall hope for success next legislature. The legislature made such liberal appropriations to the State institutions that progress is anticipated all along the lines the next two years. The crowning work of the legislature, as many have expressed it, was the passing of the act which forever abolishes the old lease system for the management of the prisoners in our State penitentiary.

SUPPLEMENTARY REPORT.

BY T. H. LEAVITT.

The Nebraska Prison Reform Association was organized in 1893, and, although not represented by delegate in person, desires to be recognized at the National Conference of Charities and Correction as one of the forces at work for, and heartily in sympathy with, all wise efforts for charities, corrections, and reformation relating to our penal and other institutions.

Our Association was the direct outcome of the formation of a Chautauqua Circle in our State penitentiary, comprising about sixty of the inmates, and conducted by members of our City Circles, who have maintained it for the past five years, and who have thereby had opportunity to observe something of the inside workings and management of affairs.

As one result, there was caused to be had a legislative investigation, which disclosed the fact that radical changes in the management of the prison and the care and discipline of the prisoners were imperatively needed.

Discoveries of similar character as relating to other of our institutions were made, much to the surprise of many of our citizens.

As a consequence, we have made strenuous effort to secure such legislation as should place our State in the front rank as relates to her public institutions; and, although as yet unsuccessful, we "propose to fight it out on this line" until such results are attained.

NEVADA.

Nevada maintains a State insane asylum at Reno. At the last report received it had 181 inmates. The State prison is located at Carson City. It has a capacity of 150 prisoners. The number of convicts December, 1894, was 77. A shoe factory was formerly maintained on State account; but it was run at a loss, and has finally been closed. The prisoners are now employed in breaking rock. Nevada maintains a State Orphans' Home at Carson City, which has a capacity of 75, and contained June 30, 1895, 86 inmates.

NEW HAMPSHIRE.

BY MISS C. R. WENDELL, CORRESPONDING SECRETARY.

The most important event in the field of charities and correction during the past year has been the enactment of the following law. The members of the State Board of Charities and Correction provided for in Section 4 have not yet been appointed.

AN ACT to provide for the education and maintenance of dependent minor children.

Be it enacted by the Senate and House of Representatives in general court convened: —

SECTION 1. No minor between the ages of three and fifteen years shall be supported at any county almshouse in this State for more than thirty days, excepting such as are mentally incapacitated for education or are under sentence for crime.

SECT. 2. It shall be the duty of the overseers of the poor of towns and cities liable for the support of such minors, and of county commissioners of counties liable for such support, to procure such minors supported at some orphan asylum or home, or with some private family or families of good repute.

SECT. 3. It shall be the duty of such overseers of the poor and county commissioners, as soon as practicable, to find permanent homes for such minors, and make contracts for their education and support during minority, which contract shall be subject to the approval of the State Board of Charities, and to revision by them whenever the interests of such minor shall make it necessary.

SECT. 4. The governor and council shall appoint five persons to serve as a State Board of Charities and Correction, whose duty it shall be to see that the provisions of this act are faithfully carried out, and that said minor children receive suitable education, training, and support. They shall first be appointed for one, two, three, four, and five years, and afterwards for five years as vacancies arise, and shall receive no compensation except expenses incurred.

SECT. 5. Any overseer of the poor or county commissioner who shall un-

reasonably neglect to comply with the requirements of this act shall be removed from office by the supreme court, or a justice thereof, upon the petition of the State Board of Charities, upon proof thereof being made, and after hearing upon said petition.

SECT. 6. Overseers of the poor and county commissioners shall report to the State Board of Charities all minors cared for by them under this act, with copies of the contracts made, and such other information as may be required by such Board; and such Board of Charities shall report annually to the governor and council to such an extent as may be required.

SECT. 7. The reasonable expenses of said State Board of Charities shall be paid by the governor and council out of any funds in the treasury not otherwise appropriated.

SECT. 8. This act shall take effect July 1, 1895.

Approved March 29, 1895.

SUPPLEMENTARY REPORT.

BY F. B. SANBORN, OF MASSACHUSETTS.

A bill has been passed in New Hampshire, providing for the removal of children from almshouses and other unsuitable places and their ultimate disposal in families in the State. New Hampshire has a large proportion of insane to the population. The administration of the asylum has been practically under the same government for thirty years. The boards of trustees have not changed their policy. The members have not been changed; and the two superintendents have been the Doctors Bancroft, father and son. Instead of the perpetual change, the swinging of the pendulum back and forth under political appointments, the management of the curable insane has been under one steady direction; and the asylum, I think, is one of the best in New England. There is a system for the chronic insane which has been considerably censured, and which the Board of Health has been trying to reform. They are in county establishments, and, there being ten counties, some of them are small and are not provided with the proper facilities for the care of the insane. The State has not suffered to any great extent from the effects of the recent depression. I suppose the number of public dependants has not been materially increased by the hard times.

NEW JERSEY.

BY DR. DAVID WARMAN, CORRESPONDING SECRETARY.

Not much of importance has been accomplished in the way of legislation in the line of charities and corrections during the last two years. The most important, however, was the appropriation of $100,000 for a State Reformatory.

A committee of six gentlemen have been appointed to look after its construction. They have adopted plans, and will begin the erection of the buildings this fall. It will be located near Rahway, on the banks of the Rahway River. They contemplate having workshops connected with the buildings, so that the youthful offenders may learn useful trades as well as something to occupy their time and attention, and in this way endeavor to bring about their reformation.

The State Prison proper at Trenton is also being enlarged at an expense of $150,000, which includes the erection of a hospital with all the modern improvements and a chapel for religious and moral instruction.

Last winter a bill was presented to the legislature, asking that it be made illegal to keep children in the different almshouses of the State; but it was buried in committee for political reasons, notwithstanding the fact that there are over 600 children in the almshouses of the State, living amid scenes and surroundings that are lowering their moral natures, stunting their growth, and making them fit subjects for criminals or paupers in future years.

The State Charities Aid Society has done and is still doing much toward arousing public sentiment in regard to the public charitable and penal institutions in the State. During the last few years they have, in a measure, been shorn of the power needed by the want of proper legislation; but the changes for good that have been brought about have been largely due to the influence exerted by this society.

Last year the Florence Mission was started in Trenton for the purpose of saving fallen women. Seventeen have been cared for at the mission since its doors opened on April 9. This home is wholly dependent for its support and maintenance upon the voluntary contributions of the public, and is doing a most noble and praiseworthy work.

The New Jersey Children's Home Society was organized last year, and its growth and work seem almost like a fairy tale. The first board was organized in the city of Trenton, June 1, 1894. The New Jersey Auxiliary was organized Sept. 11, 1894, and incorporated Oct. 18, 1894. The first children were placed in November. 50 children have since then been placed in good homes, and about 15 others are ready for placement. About 170 towns and cities have been visited by the agent of the society, and as many local boards organized. Not less than 2,500 of the best men and women of the State, including probably 500 clergymen, are enrolled in these various local boards or otherwise pledged to aid in furthering this noble work, while the placing of children in approved family homes has already begun in a very encouraging way, more children having actually been placed during the last three months than by the six largest "orphanages" or "children's homes" in the State put together. An institution that relieves society from a present burden, protects it from an impending curse, and confers a priceless boon upon a homeless child at one-tenth of the expense of the old or institutional methods, is certainly to be commended.

The Hospitals for the Insane are greatly in need of some reforms in the judgment of the State Charities Aid Society, and have been discussed repeatedly at their meetings; but the only thing that has been really accomplished is the abolition of the "old or one-headed system" which gave the medical superintendent full power and placed him virtually in charge of every department, while the "dual system," which the superintendents themselves style "the two-headed system," provides another man to look after the management of the grounds, the ordering of supplies, etc., and leaves the medical superintendent free to look more carefully after the needs of the patients placed under his professional care. We have also advocated the giving of employment of some kind to those patients capable of engaging in it, in order to divert the mind and strengthen the body. Suitable employment, competent guards and instructors, and freedom from imprisonment and restraint of all kinds are remedial agents likely to produce the best results in the treatment of the insane and sure to alleviate their suffering to a great degree. We have also insisted upon a State Lunacy Commission of one or more members, to be appointed by the governor, to whom shall be committed the special supervision of all the asylums in the State.

It should have representatives of both sexes, and experts in the care and cure of the insane and the management of hospitals for the insane. We think, too, there should be female physicians in the insane hospitals to care for those of their own sex. We hope to bring all these matters before the legislature for their consideration the coming year.

NEW MEXICO.

BY SUPERINTENDENTS OF TERRITORIAL INSTITUTIONS.

The Territory of New Mexico maintains an asylum for the insane at Las Vegas. The hospital has a capacity of 75. The number on hand Oct. 31, 1894, was 38. The institution was established in 1893. It is proposed to make provision for idiots in the same institution.

The Institute for the Deaf and Blind at Santa Fé contained 24 pupils Dec. 31, 1894. The legislature appropriated $20,000 for its expenses for the two years ending March 4, 1894, but reduced this appropriation to $7,000 for the coming two years.

The New Mexico penitentiary at Santa Fé had 142 convicts Nov. 30, 1894. The expenses of the prison for the last year were $27,167, or $163 per man. The convicts have been employed heretofore in erecting buildings for the prison, but the question of future employment is pressing. The warden recommends the manufacture on State account of terra-cotta ware, pottery, fire-brick, morocco, and gardening, horticulture, etc., in order to employ the men.

NEW YORK.

BY HOMER FOLKS, CORRESPONDING SECRETARY.

The report of the State Board of Charities for 1894 shows that the number of inmates of charitable institutions in the State of New York on Oct. 1, 1894, was 85,594 as against 80,543 in 1893 and 76,807 in 1892.

The expenditures for charitable, correctional, and reformatory purposes during the year 1894 were $20,982,393 as against $20,407,982 in 1893 and $18,228,712 in 1892. These figures do not include the expenditures of relief-giving and other societies which do not maintain institutions in which inmates are supported.

The classification of the inmates of these institutions on the 1st of October, 1894 and 1893, as shown by the same report, is as follows: —

	Oct. 1, 1894.	*Oct.* 1, 1893.
Insane	19,108	18,379
Idiotic and feeble-minded	1,627	1,561
Epileptic	737	619
Blind	706	718
Deaf	1,471	1,414
Dependent children	28,530	26,359
Juvenile offenders	4,997	4,935
Reformatory prisoners	1,477	1,713
Disabled soldiers and sailors	1,017	959
Hospital patients	5,928	5,735
Aged and friendless persons	8,237	8,074
Ordinary poorhouse inmates	11,759	10,077
Total	85,594	80,543

In regard to the insane the most important change during the past two years is that all the indigent insane of the State (except those of the counties of New York and Kings) became exclusively a State charge from and after Oct. 1, 1893, according to the provisions of the State Care for the Insane Act of 1890. For the maintenance of the 8,648 insane patients in the eight State hospitals a special tax of one-third of a mill upon all taxable property of the State was levied, yielding an income of about one and one-third millions of dollars.

A bill has already passed both branches of the legislature, and has been signed by the governor, providing for the transfer to the State of the insane of Kings County, and for the establishment of the Long Island State Hospital. A bill has also passed, and awaits the approval of the mayor and the governor, transferring the 6,500 dependent insane of New York City to the State, and converting the New York City asylums for the insane into a State hospital. In anticipation of favorable action on these bills by the mayor and governor, a bill has also been passed, and has become a law, levying a special tax of one mill for the support of the insane of the whole State. This tax will yield a return of $4,200,000, and will cover not only the maintenance of the patients, but also the necessary repairs and additions to buildings.

All of these bills are in line with the intention and provisions of the original State Care for the Insane Act of 1890.

The number of State hospitals for the insane was increased to nine by the establishment by the legislature of 1894 of the Collins Farm Homœopathic State Hospital, which is not yet open for the reception of patients.

In addition to the previously existing Training School for Feeble-minded Children and the Custodial Asylum for Feeble-minded Women, the State established in 1893 a third institution, the Custodial Asylum for Unteachable Idiots, at Rome, N.Y.

In the care of epileptics the State made a notable advance by establishing in 1894 the Craig Colony for Epileptics, named in honor of the late president of the State Board of Charities, Mr. Oscar Craig. The new institution is to be established on the colony or village plan, following closely the celebrated colony for epileptics at Bielefeld, Germany. A fine tract of land, comprising 1,800 acres, suited in every way to the needs of the institution, was purchased by the State for this purpose. It is expected that many of the epileptics will be removed from the poorhouses of the State to this institution during the present year.

The number of destitute, neglected, and wayward children in the State receiving institutional care Oct. 1, 1894, was 33,202 as against 30,660 in 1893 and 28,607 in 1892. This steady increase in the number of children living in institutions is greatly to be deplored, and is undoubtedly in large measure the result of a system of granting public money to private institutions. Notwithstanding the great increase in the number of destitute children in the State, the number of children placed in families by these institutions by adoption and indenture has actually decreased from 1,321 in 1883 to 1,241 in 1893. Of 8,356 children in institutions receiving payment for their support from New York City under general laws, 1,935, or 23 per cent., had on Oct. 1, 1894, already spent more than five years in the institutions. Concerning the other 6,975 children who are supported by the city in similar institutions under special laws, we have no means of ascertaining the duration of their residence in the institutions. A most important provision, intended to check the continual increase in the number of children who are public charges, adopted by the Constitutional Convention of 1894, and now a part of the organic law of the State, is referred to later.

We are obliged to report that in New York City little distinction is made between destitute, neglected, and delinquent children. All

these classes of children are committed to institutions by magistrates under the provisions of the Penal Code, and most of the institutions receive all classes of children.

Concerning reformatories for adults, it is important to notice that the legislature of 1894 provided for the establishment of the Eastern New York Reformatory to be located near New York City, and to receive the same class of inmates as the Reformatory at Elmira.

With other legislation of 1894 should be noted the establishment of a Home for Aged and Dependent Veterans and their wives, mothers, and widows, and for army nurses; also a provision requiring the approval of the State Board of Charities previous to the incorporation of any hospital, infirmary, dispensary, or home for invalids or aged or indigent persons. A similar provision has existed since 1883 concerning the incorporation of institutions for children. Of nine applications for the incorporation of charitable institutions during the year ending Oct. 1, 1894, five were approved, and four rejected.

A bill framed by the State Charities Aid Association providing for the division of the Department of Charities and Correction of New York City with its twenty-five institutions, having a total of over 18,000 inmates and employees, into a department of charities and a department of correction, has already passed the legislature and received the approval of the mayor of New York City, and will without doubt be approved by the governor. It provides for a commission of three to have charge of the charitable institutions of the city and a single commissioner to have charge of the correctional institutions.

An important bill revising and consolidating the laws relating to the State Board of Charities and generally strengthening and defining its powers is also before the governor. [Signed by the governor May 27.]

A bill to turn over the Department of Charities and Correction of Kings County with nearly 5,000 inmates to the tender mercies of a practical politician of the baser sort was happily killed by the veto of Governor Morton, after passing both branches of the legislature.

Undoubtedly, the most far-reaching step in the history of the administration of charity in the State of New York during the past two years is the adoption of the so-called "Charities Article" of the revised Constitution.

This provides, in effect, that there shall always be a State Commission in Lunacy which shall visit and inspect all institutions established for the care of the insane, a State Commission of Prisons which shall visit and inspect all institutions used for the detention of sane adults charged with or convicted of crime, and a State Board of Charities which shall visit and inspect all other institutions, whether State, county, municipal, incorporated or not incorporated, which are of a charitable, eleemosynary, correctional, or reformatory character. All matters pertaining to the organization of these boards, the number of members, terms of office, and compensation, are left to the legislature, which may also impose upon and withdraw from them duties of an executive or administrative character. The right and duty of visitation and inspection cannot, however, be in any way abridged or limited; nor can any institution or class of institutions secure from the legislature either exemption from such inspection or the abolition of the supervisory board. This part of the Charities Article was prepared and submitted by the State Charities Aid Association, and adopted by the Convention and the people substantially as first prepared.

Two very important additions were made by the Convention. The first prohibits the legislature from compelling any county, city, town, or village to make any payment of money to any charitable or correctional institution which is wholly or partly under private control.

Since 1851 the legislature has from time to time passed no less than 42 special laws compelling New York City to make annual appropriations to certain private charitable institutions, these payments amounting at the present time to about $1,250,000. It has been impossible to secure any intelligent consideration as to the continued necessity for these appropriations. The local authorities have had no option in the matter, and the legislature has paid little or no attention to the effect of enactments of earlier sessions of that body.

The most radical provision, however, is that which directs that no payment shall be made by any county, city, town, or village, to any charitable or correctional institution, wholly or partly under private control, for any inmate who is not received and retained therein pursuan to rules established by the State Board of Charities, such rules being subject to the control of the legislature by general laws.

An effort was made by the National League for the Protection of

American Institutions to induce the Constitutional Convention to prohibit all grants of public money to so-called "sectarian" institutions. There was a strong feeling on the part of many prominent members of the Convention that the practice of granting public money to private institutions should never have been entered upon; but investigation of the subject convinced them that, as the system had been in operation for so many years, it was not practicable to discontinue it. They were convinced, however, that there were serious evils in the too ready admission of inmates, both by commitment by public officers and by surrender by parents, to such institutions and their retention for an unnecessarily long period. The Convention decided to give the State Board of Charities power to correct these evils by requiring as an additional condition, precedent to the payment of public money to a private institution, that the inmates must be received and retained pursuant to rules established by that body. The power of the State Board of Charities is thus purely restrictive. It cannot authorize any increased or additional appropriations not already authorized by law, but it can limit all such appropriations to any extent which may seem to it wise by imposing restrictions as to the reception and retention of inmates.

Owing to the complexity of the problem and the magnitude of the interests involved, the State Board of Charities has not been able as yet to formulate permanent rules of the nature contemplated by the Constitution. It has, however, issued a set of preliminary rules which go far toward correcting several of the worst evils of the existing system. The first of the rules prevents the payment of any public money for any inmates except mothers and infants who are not received by the commitment or order of some proper public official. The second rule provides in effect that the State Board of Charities may, after six months' notice, stop the payment of public money for any child who should, in its opinion, be restored to its parents or placed out in a family.

A third rule provides that a detailed and complete monthly report shall be made to the State Board of Charities by each institution concerning each inmate.

These eminently wise provisions give promise that in its final rules the State Board of Charities will effect the reforms which the framers of the new Constitution contemplated.

The principal feature of the winter 1894–95 seems to be that the

permanent effects of the very unusual amount of relief given the winter before were not so bad as might reasonably have been expected; and the leaders in the charity organization and similar societies very properly regard this as evidence that their work was fairly well done, and that relief afforded in a time of unusual distress did not produce, except in rare cases, a willingness and desire to seek relief when the need was not so urgent.

The Provident Loan Society has been in operation since May 21, 1895, making loans upon personal property upon business principles, but charging only 1 per cent. per month interest instead of the 3 per cent. charged by the pawnbroker. During the first six months $195,040 was loaned on 12,286 different pledges.

Charity organization societies have been organized during the past year at Mt. Vernon and Schenectady.

NORTH CAROLINA.

BY C. B. DENSON, SECRETARY OF THE STATE BOARD OF PUBLIC CHARITIES.

Public sentiment from the very bottom has to be created and carefully nourished in many out-of-the-way localities, among our mountains and sea-coast swamps. Yet I see it steadily growing now. But the Fusion legislature, just adjourned, failed to establish the reformatory, although the bill passed the Senate and all but one reading in the House, not being reached on the calendar upon the last day. It was a trick, however; and its passage was suppressed, as the body had been extravagant, having appropriated $125,000 in excess of any other for many years, varied taxation, and created new officers, all chosen from their own body.

Notes from Reports of State Institutions.

North Carolina has three hospitals for insane, at Raleigh, Morgantown, and Goldsboro, with a combined population of about 1,150 patients. The current expense per patient is reported as $116 at Goldsboro and $150 at Morgantown.

The State maintains a school for the deaf and dumb at Morgantown and a school for the blind at Raleigh. The colored deaf and blind are kept in the same institution at Raleigh.

The North Carolina Soldiers' Home is located at Raleigh, also the State penitentiary.

The State makes appropriations for the following-named children's institutions: Oxford Orphan Asylum, $10,000; and the Colored Orphan Asylum, at Oxford, $1,125.

NORTH DAKOTA.

BY SUPERINTENDENTS OF STATE INSTITUTIONS.

The Hospital for Insane at Jamestown maintains its high standard of excellence. This institution had demonstrated the adaptability of the "cottage system" to high latitudes. The legislature of 1895 cut down the current expense appropriation to $61,000, seriously crippling the institution.

In response to a request for information, the superintendent of the School for the Deaf, at Devil's Lake, replied as follows: "This is a school. We do not want to be recorded in your association in any way or shape whatever." This expression is an exception to the general rule. Only three superintendents have objected to furnishing reports, and thirty-nine reports were received from schools for the deaf.

The State prison has a capacity of 160 inmates, but contained, Dec. 31, 1894, only 84. The prison has a farm of 300 acres, which is cultivated by the convicts. The manufacture of brick is largely undertaken.

OHIO.

BY JOSEPH P. BYERS.

There has been no session of the State legislature since the last report. This of course precludes the possibility of reporting any progress as regards legislation.

The State Hospital at Massillon, Ohio, is in process of erection. It will be built on the cottage, or segregate, plan. The foundations of many of the buildings are complete. The dining hall, laundry, and store buildings are enclosed; and with adequate appropriations the hospital should be ready for occupancy by Jan. 1, 1897. The institution has connected with it about 230 acres of land, and will accommodate ultimately, as at present contemplated, 1,200 inmates.

The Gallipolis State Hospital for Epileptics has been open for the reception of inmates since November, 1893. The number now in the hospital approximates 500. A careful record of individual cases, their antecedents, history, and condition prior to admission to the hospital, is kept, and a daily record made of each case while in the hospital. The capacity of the institution is being constantly increased by the erection of new cottages. A start toward the establishment of trades has been made. Gardening and farming, carpentering and shoemaking, are engaging many of the inmates. Schools for the children have been established.

The year has been one of unusual quiet among State and county institutions.

The work of the Boards of County Visitors is becoming more and more apparent in the higher standard of excellence attained by county and municipal institutions.

The annual investment of a half million dollars by the tax-payers of Ohio in outdoor relief continues. The dividends are declared in pauperism and crime. The report of the Board of State Charities for 1894 shows that 188,668 persons were wholly or partially maintained at public expense during that year at a cost of $4,175,915.47. These figures indicate that 6 per cent., or about 1 to every 17 of population, was a public charge at some time during the year.

The amount expended for outdoor relief in 1894 shows an increase over 1893 of over 25 per cent. The total for 1894 was, in round numbers, $[illegible]00,000.

A counteracting influence to the results of this *permanent fund for the encouragement and promotion of pauperism* is beginning to be felt in the work of the Associated Charities in cities. Already the Cincinnati association has asked the city to cease all official assistance to the poor. In Columbus, where late in the winter efforts to organize an Industrial Relief Society were successful, the inauguration of the movement gave promise of great things. This promise has been fulfilled. The organization has been made permanent, and will not be discontinued during the summer. The evils attending official relief as practised in our larger cities have been strikingly demonstrated. Soon after the opening of the work the superintendent reported to the committee that he could furnish work for all able-bodied male applicants. This state of affairs was telephoned to the City Infirmary physician, under whose direction the poor fund in the

city is dispensed; and he was asked to refer such men to the Industrial Relief. The first day six men were sent to the society: of the six, *one* put in an appearance. He approached the superintendent and asked for food, and was immediately referred to the woodpile, with the promise of food for himself and family after he had worked a couple of hours.

"And, Mr. Hague," said he to the superintendent, "I am out of fuel, and would like a load of coal."

"Well," Mr. Hague replied, "you may work till three o'clock, and we will send you some coal."

"Mr. Hague," he went on, holding out his coat for inspection, "this coat is about gone up. Can't you give me something better than this?"

"Oh, yes. You work till six o'clock this evening, and I will see that you are fitted out in a little better shape."

"Mr. Hague," said the applicant, with a look of intense compassion, "do you expect to make a success of this?"

"Why, yes, we hope to. We propose to do our best, and I guess we can make it go. At any rate, we will give it a fair trial."

"Well, Mr. Hague, I am sorry for you." And he left, without food, coal, or better clothing. What he wanted, what he had been accustomed to receive, what he did not get, was *something for nothing*.

Of course, records of such cases were kept, and referred back to the city authorities, where future aid was refused.

OKLAHOMA.

THE GOVERNOR'S PRIVATE SECRETARY.

Oklahoma has no public institution, but has made contracts with adjacent States for the care of the insane and the delinquent children.

OREGON.

BY SUPERINTENDENTS OF STATE INSTITUTIONS.

The State insane asylum has a capacity of 980 inmates, and contained 977 Dec. 31, 1894. The expense per inmate is reported at $118 per year. The State Reform School has a capacity of 150 inmates, containing 107, kept at an expense of $180 per year. Shoe-

making, carpentering, and other industrial employments are being introduced. The Oregon State penitentiary contained 357 inmates Dec. 31, 1894. The legislature of 1893 appropriated $230,000 to establish a jute mill; but this appropriation was not used, and the managers recommended to the legislature of 1895 the establishment of a flax manufactory.

PENNSYLVANIA.

The legislature of the Commonwealth met at the beginning of the year, and is still in session. Owing to the general business depression, the revenue of the State has been much decreased; and, consequently, the appropriations usually made to charitable institutions will have to be largely reduced. What that amount may be cannot now even be estimated.

Within the past two years the institution at Wernersville, in Berks County, for the care of the chronic insane, has been opened, and is now, by the transfer of cases from the previously existing hospitals, entirely filled. It has capacity for 800 inmates. The opening exercises were held on Sept. 5, 1894.

The corner-stone of the new building for feeble-minded children was laid at Polk, in Venango County, on Nov. 21, 1894. It is expected that inmates can be admitted to it early in the year 1896.

A new administration building has been erected at the State Hospital for the Insane at Harrisburg, Dauphin County; and it is now occupied. It is hoped that an appropriation will be made at this session of the legislature to enable at least one-half of the old building for the insane at this place to be replaced by a new and modern structure.

An additional block of cells is in course of erection at the State Reformatory at Huntingdon. This institution is intended for male convicts under twenty-five years of age, serving their first sentences. Its government is modelled largely after the State Reformatory at Elmira, in New York.

The Eastern and Western Penitentiaries continue to hold the position so long maintained by them as models, the former of the separate, and the latter of the congregate, system.

It is proper, in this connection, to mention the loss which not only Pennsylvania, but the whole country, has sustained in the death of

Hon. Richard Vaux, which took place on the twenty-second day of March last. For considerably over fifty years he had been connected with the management of the Eastern Penitentiary, and was during the greater portion of that time the president of its board of inspectors. He gave the best of his life in time and study to this institution, and its great success speaks more eloquently than words can do of his faithfulness and ability in the discharge of his duties. Pennsylvanians have reason to feel proud that during this long period of time, although during the greater part of it the State government was in charge of those that differed radically in their political views from Mr. Vaux, yet there never was a serious doubt concerning his renomination; and so thoroughly were the people convinced that he was the right man in the right place that any suggestion of a change would have met with well-nigh universal condemnation.

In Pennsylvania politics have never interfered in the management of the charitable and reformatory institutions.

The number of hospitals for the care of the sick and injured has largely increased in all sections of the State during the past year, while the capacity of the older institutions has been considerably enlarged. The buildings for these institutions have been judiciously planned, and they do much admirable work. They have, in fact, proved themselves to be a great blessing to their respective communities.

Any report of the work accomplished during the past year would be inadequate if it did not consider what has been done for the care and protection of the children of the Commonwealth. A large number of institutions and schools, many established long since and many comparatively new, provide for the education and maintenance of all phases of dependent childhood. Nowhere is there a greater number of institutions for the deaf and dumb, the blind, the feeble-minded, and the wayward. Orphans' homes exist in large numbers. But the work which deserves the greatest commendation, and which has been carried to the most successful issue, is that of the children's aid societies. They began their work by finding private homes, well selected, for children without taint, who would otherwise have been placed, of necessity, in institutions. Now, however, they have enlarged their field of operations, and enter our courts to intercede for the custody of such children as have

heretofore been sent to reformatory institutions. Their success has been wonderful, and many a child has been saved from a brand which could never have been effaced.

RHODE ISLAND.

By an unfortunate accident the excellent report for Rhode Island, made by Rev. J. H. Nutting, Corresponding Secretary, was lost. It was impossible to replace it, and the following facts have been gleaned from the reports of the State institutions.

All of the Rhode Island State institutions are located on one large farm at Cranston, and are controlled by a single board of trustees, known as the State Board of Charities and Correction. The only exception is the State Home and School for Dependent Children at Providence, which is managed by a separate board of control.

The State has appropriated $100,000 toward the building of a new jail at Providence, to contain 438 cells in addition to 29 cells for the criminal insane.

A building for a drill hall and shops at the Sockanosset School for Boys has been built entirely by the boys except the slate roofing and the cutting of granite sills for doors and windows.

The Rhode Island plan of caring for dependants and delinquents works admirably in this small State.

SOUTH CAROLINA.

BY J. W. BABCOCK, M.D., CORRESPONDING SECRETARY.

The South Carolina Lunatic Asylum at Columbia is one of the oldest institutions in the country, having been organized in 1822. It has a capacity of 1,800 inmates, and contained Dec. 31, 1894, 816 inmates, of whom 347 were colored. The expense per inmate is $138.50 per year. A training school for nurses has been established, with infirmary wards for all sick patients. The institution for the blind and deaf is located at Cedar Springs. This institution was established in 1849. It has a capacity of 175 inmates. The expenditure per pupil is very small, being reported at only $138 per year. The South Carolina penitentiary at Columbia has a capacity

of 2,000 inmates. There were 1,085 present Dec. 31, 1893. The legislature passed a law providing for the sentencing of convicts to public work in counties.

SOUTH DAKOTA.

BY SUPERINTENDENTS OF STATE INSTITUTIONS.

The State institutions of South Dakota are under the control of the State Board of Charities and Correction, which acts as a board of trustees for all of the institutions. The Hospital for Insane at Yankton was established in 1879. It has a capacity of 350 inmates, and there were 384 present Dec. 31, 1895. The cost of maintenance is reported at $216.33 per capita. Patients committed to the hospital are sent for by an employee of the institution. The South Dakota Soldiers' Home at Hot Springs has a capacity of 225; but there were only 118 inmates Dec. 31, 1894, of whom 2 were females. The expense per inmate is $270.50 per year. The rapid increase in the age of members has necessitated the abandonment of the policy of employing inmates of the home exclusively in the service. The State Reform School at Plankinton was established in 1888, and had on Dec. 31, 1894, 87 inmates, of whom 22 were girls,— an unusually large proportion. The appropriations were cut down by the legislature of 1895 to a degree which cripples the school seriously. The Kansas penitentiary at Sioux Falls, with a capacity of 100 convicts, contained Dec. 31, 1894, 128 convicts. The proportion of convicts to the population in South Dakota is very low.

TENNESSEE.

BY THE SUPERINTENDENTS OF STATE INSTITUTIONS.

Tennessee has three hospitals for insane,— at Nashville, Knoxville, and Bolivar. The State maintains a Confederate Soldiers' Home at Old Hickory, near Nashville, which contained 87 veterans Dec. 31, 1894. The State appropriates $7,500 per year, and the cost of maintenance is $96.50 per man. The Deaf and Dumb School at Knoxville had 191 pupils Dec. 31, 1894. A gymnasium has been built, and systematic physical culture has been introduced. The School for the Blind at Nashville had 118 pupils Dec. 31, 1895,

kept at a cost of $210 per pupil. The Tennessee Industrial School at Nashville has grown to large proportions. There were 442 inmates Dec. 31, 1894, of whom 60 were girls. Manual training has been introduced, with a diversity of trades. The State penitentiary at Nashville has a capacity of 650 convicts. It contained 631 Dec. 31, 1894, besides 1,000 convicts leased out, making a total of 1,631 convicts. The convicts "in the walls" work at harness-making and farming. Those leased out work at digging coal, railroad building, the "lessees paying all expenses of guarding, feeding, and clothing. The State keeps no account of expense, except superintendent's salary, $2,000; warden, $1,500; deputy, $1,200; physician, $1,200,—lessees paying all other expenses. This being the last year of the lease, the State will work them hereafter."

TEXAS.

BY SUPERINTENDENTS OF STATE INSTITUTIONS.

Texas has three hospitals for the insane, with a united capacity of 1,725 patients. The deaf and dumb asylum at Austin has a capacity of 275 pupils, and had 237 present Dec. 31, 1894, who were maintained at a per capita expense of $103. There is an institution for deaf and dumb and blind colored children at Austin. The Texas House of Correction and Reformatory, established in 1889, is located at Gatesville. There were present in this institution 251 boys Dec. 31, 1894.

The State penitentiaries are under the direction of a State penitentiary board of four members, together with a superintendent of penitentiaries. The number of convicts Dec. 31, 1894, was 4,125, distributed as follows: in and about the Huntsville penitentiary, 844; at Rusk prison, 923; total in the two prisons, 1,767; employed on railroads, 397; employed on contract farms, 1,261; employed on share farms, 468; employed on State farms, 222; total number at outside forces, 2,358; grand total, 4,325.

The report of the superintendent of prisons recommends the purchase of lands by the State, in order to employ convicts on State farms in lieu of the lease system. He urges the reduction of penalties, in order to prevent the multiplication of convicts. He says: "I beg to suggest, with a view of somewhat reducing the felony con-

victions, that theft of property less than fifty dollars should be declared a misdemeanor, punishable by fine or imprisonment or both. The cost of arrest, trial, conviction, maintenance, transportation, etc., is very great to the State, and is never repaid by the service, which is usually two years. The counties, and not the State, should bear the burdens of these petty affairs. Under the present law men have been sent to the penitentiary for theft of a parrot, a dog, a coop of chickens, an old saddle, and the like. Surely, the State does not mean to turn persecutor; and most certainly its citizens should not be taxed to promote such laws, so easily remedied." The superintendent calls attention to the gratifying decrease of the death-rate from 27.5 per thousand in 1890 to 19.3 per thousand in 1894.

UTAH.

BY SUPERINTENDENTS OF STATE INSTITUTIONS.

The Utah insane asylum at Provo, established in 1885, has a capacity of 350 inmates, and contained 239 Dec. 31, 1894, who were maintained at a cost of $184 per capita. The Utah School for the Deaf at Salt Lake City has a capacity of 75, and contained 52 pupils Dec. 31, 1894, maintained at a cost of $156 per capita. The legislature of 1895 reduced the appropriation for this school from $25,000 to $15,000 for the biennial period. The Reform School at Ogden has a capacity of 200 inmates, but it contained only 32 Dec. 31, 1894. The Utah penitentiary at Salt Lake City has a capacity of 500 inmates, but contained only 195 Dec. 31, 1894. It does not appear from the report that there is any employment for the inmates of the penitentiary.

VERMONT.

BY SUPERINTENDENTS OF STATE INSTITUTIONS.

Vermont has two insane asylums, — the Brattleboro Retreat and the Vermont State asylum; the latter being a new institution established in 1888. They have a united capacity of 600 patients, and contained Dec. 31, 1894, 608 patients. The legislature of 1895 appropriated $150,000 for additional accommodations at the State

asylum. The State maintains a Soldiers' Home at Bennington and a State House of Correction at Rutland. The State Industrial School at Vergennes had only 102 inmates Dec. 31, 1894, and the State penitentiary had only 149, which speaks well for the character of the Green Mountain State.

VIRGINIA.

BY ROBERT GILLIAM, CORRESPONDING SECRETARY.

Though they are not all they should be, still Virginia has a right to be proud of her charitable and correctional institutions. The desolation and poverty wrought by the Civil War, and a depleted treasury ever since, have debarred the State from carrying into effect many desired projects for the care of all her defective people.

The Insane.— The first public asylum exclusively for the insane built on this continent was the one at historic old Williamsburg. This institution was opened Oct 12, 1773, "for the reception of idiots, lunatics, and other persons of unsound mind." In 1827 the "Western Lunatic Asylum" at Staunton, amid the beautiful mountains of Virginia, was established. A few years ago the State opened the doors of her third asylum for her unfortunate white citizens whose minds might be dethroned. During the last fiscal year these three institutions received and cared for — furnishing them medical attention, nursing, food, clothing, and every comfort — 1,773 beneficiaries. For these purposes the legislature appropriated $230,000. These three hospitals (as they are now very happily called) afford ample accommodation for all the indigent white insane of the State.

The Colored Insane.— Although the Old Dominion was in the throes of financial distress twenty-five years ago, she erected out of her scant funds the first asylum in the world exclusively for the colored insane. Last year the Central State Hospital, near Petersburg, treated within its precincts 940 insane negroes. The annual appropriation granted by the State for the maintenance of this institution is $80,000. Since the opening of this great charity, in 1870, 4,200 patients have received gratuitous treatment and care.

The criminal insane are not segregated from the other insane; but it is to be hoped that erelong there will be made provision specially

for this class, with whom the innocent unfortunate should not be compelled, as at present, to associate.

The general management of each State hospital, as well as that of the penitentiary and the Institution for the Deaf, the Dumb, and the Blind, is vested in a board of directors, nominated by the governor, subject to the approval of the State Senate. These boards serve without compensation, save a nominal sum to cover their actual expenses. The administrative affairs of each institution are conducted by officers appointed by the respective boards.

The Deaf, the Dumb, and the Blind.— For a great many years the State has maintained an institution for the deaf-mutes and the blind, located at Staunton, where annually from 125 to 150 unfortunate Virginia girls and boys are being taken care of and educated. This institution, which is well equipped and admirably well managed, is doing a noble part. In its methods of instruction it is fully abreast of the great advances that have recently been made in this great humane work. But, unfortunately, the capacity of the institution is inadequate for more than a third of those who are in need of the help that such an institution only can give.

The annuity given by the State for this grand charity is nearly $40,000.

The Poor.— In nearly every county and city in the Commonwealth there is a home for the poor, the conduct of which is entirely in the hands of local officials. Many of these almshouses are conducted so well that they would bear the closest investigation. Others, though, need reformation and improvement in many particulars. However, all the poor and destitute are cared for and supported either at the public expense or by private charity. In many sections voluntary benevolent societies exist, and exert a wholesome influence over the public almshouses, and otherwise do much good. The expense of these local institutions is borne entirely by the respective cities or counties in which they are located. As to the number of inmates they have, there is no available method of ascertaining, except from the city or county records; and they are not published.

The Eye and Ear Infirmary in Richmond, the Medical College of Virginia Hospital in Richmond, and other hospitals receive aid from the State annually to afford treatment to indigent persons suffering from disease.

The Criminals.— The State penitentiary is in a most gratifying

condition. The financial affairs present a satisfactory showing, as may be seen from the superintendent's last report. Instead of being a burden to the State, it is a source of revenue. The accounts of the institution show a substantial credit balance in its favor. Industries of every description are in operation, thereby keeping most of the prisoners constantly employed. Under an act of the last legislature the superintendent has purchased, out of the net earnings of last year, a farm, which is being equipped with stock, implements, suitable buildings, etc. The prime object of this farm is to furnish the prison with provisions and vegetables and to provide employment and cheap quarters for the short-term men and boys. At the end of the last year there were in custody 300 white and 1,230 colored prisoners,— a total of 1,530. In 1880 the proportion of colored convicts to the colored population was 6 to every 5,000, that of the whites 1 to every 4,000. Since that date crime among the white people has not increased; while, according to Superintendent Lynn's estimate, there are now about 9½ negro convicts to every 5,000 of the colored population.

The moral status of the conduct of our State prison deserves mention. Religious exercises are held at the prison twice every Sunday, and a Sunday-school is conducted regularly, all for the benefit of those incarcerated there.

Good discipline, efforts at reformation of character, and regular productive labor, under the immediate supervision of the prison authorities, seem to characterize the administration of the Virginia penitentiary. Within the last decade the management of convicts has undergone considerable reformation.

Jails and Station-houses.— Nearly every county and city has its local prison, which, like the almshouse, is under the exclusive supervision of the county or the municipal authorities. In many instances these prisons are in an unsanitary, uncomfortable, and otherwise unsatisfactory condition; but there is a growing sentiment toward improvement in many respects. Better supervision, and a system of employment for those confined in jails awaiting trial or for petty crimes, should be inaugurated.

Reformatories.— The Prison Association of Virginia, incorporated in March, 1890, is accomplishing much good. The purposes of the association are to bring about improvement and reforms in the condition and management of prisons, jails, and police stations, the

amelioration of the hardships of prisoners wherever found, and to aid discharged convicts in securing employment and in their efforts to reform their characters, and to train and teach youthful vagrants, disorderly persons, and the like. The association is equipped with workshops, schools, and other means wherewith to further the benevolent and humane work it has so nobly undertaken.

The Old Soldiers.— In a beautiful spot near the city of Richmond may be seen a group of cottages, a hospital, and a church, erected there a few years ago for the relief of indigent old Confederate soldiers. Lee Camp and the Ladies' Auxiliary — God bless our noble women! — alone have contributed since the organization of this home, in 1883, over $325,000 toward this most commendable object. The State appropriates an annuity of $30,000 toward the maintenance of this loved charity. In addition to this the State gives a stipend or pension annually to a number of needy old comrades and their families. Last year this amount aggregated $109,700. Still, the revenues are insufficient to meet all the demands and necessities of the poor old soldiers.

Since the foundation of the home this delightful haven has given comfort and support to nearly one thousand worn out and dependent old followers of the immortal Lee. There are now in the home 260 old braves who are spending their last days on earth in rest and quietude, awaiting the final bugle-call when they will "pass over the river and rest in the shade of the trees."

Private Charity.— Throughout the State, in every community, a noble spirit of benevolence reigns. Within the last few years much has been done for sweet charity's sake. Duty to our fellow-man, in his hour of sore distress and want, is a recognized principle. Foundling hospitals, orphan asylums, homes for aged and infirm, houses for fallen women, retreats for the sick, infirmaries, and dispensaries are everywhere to be found as beautiful monuments to that Christian philanthropy which pervades our land. Churches, societies, and individuals, though in an unostentatious manner, are vying with one another in the effort to alleviate sick and suffering dependent humanity. The Richmond Industrial Home, chartered in May, 1894, is entitled to special mention here. This institution, designed as a temporary refuge for the destitute, without friends or means of support, furnished employment and a temporary home to a large number of destitute but worthy people during the severe winter of

1894-95. Mr. James Lyons, a member of this Conference, is its president.

While Virginia is doing all she is able to do for her needy citizens, still she is not unmindful that there is much more to be accomplished, which, in the providence of God, she hopes to do in the near future.

CHARITABLE INSTITUTIONS MAINTAINED FROM THE VIRGINIA STATE TREASURY.

Name.	Location.	Capacity.	No. inmates during last fiscal year.	Annual appropriation for support.
Eastern State Hospital for Insane	Williamsburg	500	536	$75,000
Western State Hospital for Insane . . .	Staunton	850	856	105,000
South-western State Hospital for Insane .	Marion	300	381	50,000
Central State Hospital for Insane	Petersburg	800	939	80,000
Insane in jails and families awaiting to be transmitted to hospitals				27,000*
Institution for Deaf, Dumb, and Blind . .	Staunton	140	139	38,000
Eye and Ear Infirmary	Richmond			1,000†
Confederate Soldiers' Home	Richmond	260		30,000
Pensions and Artificial Legs				110,000
Total amount appropriated last year .				$489,000

SUPPLEMENTARY REPORT.

BY MAJOR N. N. RANDOLPH, PRESIDENT LEE CAMP SOLDIERS' HOME.

R. E. Lee Camp No. 1, C. V., was organized in 1883 with the object of relieving the suffering of the old Confederate soldiers, and as far as possible the widows and orphans.

In 1884 they bought the property west of the city, and established the Soldiers' Home. Handsome cottages were built and donated to the home by the children of ex-Governor William Smith, Major Lewis Ginter, Mr. Mark Downey, Mr. W. W. Corcoran, Captain A. G. Babcock, Mr. William H. Appleton, of New York, Mr. James B. Pace, and Colonel Robert I. Fleming, of Washington.

From the opening of the home to April 1, 1895, 877 men have been admitted, representing nearly every county and city in the State, besides 72 men from the other Southern States.

*About. † To aid the indigent.

For two years the home was supported entirely by Lee Camp; for six years the State appropriated $10,000 a year; and for three years the State has appropriated $30,000 a year, which is intended for the support of 200 men, and the present number is 260.

The amount, including purchase of land, erection of buildings, equipment and maintenance of the institution, has been $288,220.98. The amount spent by the camp in the relief of indigent soldiers who were not entitled to admission to the home, and for the relief of widows and orphans, has amounted to about $40,000, making the total expended in charity by the camp for the Soldiers' Home and the Ladies' Auxiliary Charity Fund amount to $328,220.

WASHINGTON.

BY SUPERINTENDENTS OF STATE INSTITUTIONS.

Washington maintains two hospitals for the insane, with a united capacity of 800 patients. There were present Dec. 31, 1894, 674. The legislature of 1895 reduced the appropriation per capita for the maintenance of patients from 50 cents per day to 45 cents per day. Additional accommodations for 90 patients are being provided at Medical Lake. Associated dining-rooms have been substituted for ward dining-rooms. The School for Defective Youth at Vancouver provides for the deaf, blind, and feeble-minded. The State Reform School at Chehalis contained 150 inmates Dec. 31, 1894, maintained at a cost of $122.50 per capita. The State penitentiary at Walla Walla has a capacity of 600 convicts, and contained 431 convicts Dec. 31, 1894,— a decrease of 19 from the previous year. Washington has a very small criminal population.

WEST VIRGINIA.

BY SUPERINTENDENTS OF STATE INSTITUTIONS.

West Virginia has two hospitals for the insane, located at Weston and Spencer, with a united capacity of 1,175 inmates. The number present Dec. 31, 1894, was 1,102. The School for the Deaf and the Blind at Romney, with a capacity of 190 inmates, had 165 present Dec. 31, 1894, maintained at an annual cost of $193 per capita.

The Reform School at Pruntytown was established in 1889. It has a capacity of 150 boys, and contained 110 Dec. 31, 1894, maintained at an annual cost of $109 per capita. The superintendent says, "Plenty to eat and comfortable quarters, and equal and exact justice are practised instead of severity of discipline."

WISCONSIN.

BY GUSTAV FRELLSON, CORRESPONDING SECRETARY.

There are in Wisconsin 7 State institutions, 22 county asylums, 4 semi-State institutions, 49 poorhouses, 68 jails, 198 police stations, and 15 private and benevolent institutions under the supervision of the Board of Control.

While Wisconsin has been liberal in its provisions for the care of its unfortunate charges, there are many improvements to be suggested in order to bring its institutions fully up to the standard of the best thought of the times. For instance, at the State prison the old system of kerosene lamps is still used, while a modern electric plant would be a matter of economy and safety as well.

Insane.— The insane are at present cared for as they were last year, some improvements having been made at the different buildings. At the Northern Hospital a large tract of land has been added to the hospital farm.

School for the Deaf.— New and improved methods of teaching the deaf children of our State have been adopted.

The superintendent of the school was last year sent to the leading Eastern deaf schools, empowered with authority to engage oral teachers and to obtain information necessary fully to inaugurate the oral system in the schools. The result is evidenced in the improvements already attained, the most modern and improved methods of teaching being now employed.

School for the Blind.— As with the School for the Deaf, so it can be said for the School for the Blind, this school is no longer an inferior place of instruction, but ranks with the best in the country.

Industrial School for Boys.— Among the permanent improvements in this institution, erected during the past year, is a handsome school building which is a credit to the State of Wisconsin.

State Prison.— There has been no change in the management of

the State prison, nor in the mode of utilizing prison labor. The same contract system obtained years since still continues.

State Public School.— The State Public School at Sparta is accomplishing a beneficent work. This institution is not an asylum: it is simply a temporary place of detention, where children are fitted to go into homes selected by competent agents. 80 per cent. of children placed out the past year remain out.

State Veterans' Home.— The number of old soldiers in the State home has increased somewhat the past two years, in consequence of the hard times. The State of Wisconsin paid for the maintenance of these veterans during 1894 the sum of $39,107.99. In addition to this the different counties paid large sums for the relief of old soldiers and their families in their own homes.

Charity Organizations.— Considerable progress has been made in the field of charity organization. The Associated Charities of Milwaukee dealt with nearly 6,000 cases the past two years. Several smaller cities through the State are about to adopt similar methods in caring for the poor. Milwaukee County expended $108,332.41 in caring for 3,000 families during 1894. About 1,500 of these were able-bodied persons who were fed without giving anything in return for what they received.

The Associated Charities has a bill before the legislature for the establishment of a stone and wood yard where all able-bodied persons receiving aid from the county will be compelled to work for what they receive. This bill has been passed by both Houses, and will become a law as soon as the governor affixes his signature.

Forest Fires.— The great forest fires of 1894 made heavy demands upon the people of Wisconsin. About $27,000 was disbursed in cash, besides carloads of provisions and clothing. The work of distributing was administered by a commission of gentlemen appointed by the governor.

Feeble-minded.— The one thing in which Wisconsin is behind some of its sister States is in the care of the feeble-minded. All efforts of the different State Boards of Charities and many other philanthropic individuals to induce the State to provide a home for this class of unfortunates have failed; but at last the present legislature, now in session, has decided to appropriate $100,000 for such a home, $50,000 to be expended in 1895 and $50,000 in 1896. So in the future the 3,000 of this class of defectives in our State will be cared for and educated. At present they are crowded in poorhouses and jails.

The population of our State institutions at the close of 1894 was as follows: —

State Hospital for Insane, Mendota	479
Northern Hospital for Insane, Oshkosh	597
School for the Deaf, Delavan	188
School for the Blind, Janesville	100
Industrial School for Boys, Waukesha	351
State Prison, Waupun	662
State Public School, Sparta	266
	2,643

WYOMING.

COMPILED FROM THE REPORT OF THE STATE BOARD OF CHARITIES AND REFORM.

The State institutions of Wyoming are under the supervision of the State Board of Charities and Reform. The State Insane Asylum at Evanston has a capacity of 50 inmates, and contained 45 inmates Dec. 31, 1894, maintained at a cost of 60 cents per day. The asylum is supported by a tax of five-sixteenths of a mill on all taxable property of the State. 2 children are cared for in the Colorado institute for the education of the mute and blind, under contract. 5 juvenile delinquents are cared for under contract in the State Industrial School at Golden, Col. 2 female delinquents are cared for, under contract, in the Good Shepherd Industrial School at Denver, Col.

7 convicts are cared for, under contract, in the Illinois State penitentiary. The Wyoming State penitentiary at Laramie contained 106 prisoners Nov. 30, 1894, who are kept under the lease system. A new penitentiary building is being constructed, at a cost of $100,000, at Rawlins. The number of prisoners in county jails, July 1, 1894, was 64.

ONTARIO.

A. M. ROSEBRUGH, M.D., CORRESPONDING SECRETARY.

From the Annual Report of the Directors of the Prisoners' Aid Association it appears that during the year the work of the Association has been carried forward steadily in all the different departments. The Sunday-schools conducted every Sunday morning at the Central Prison, Women's Reformatory, and city jail, have been

carried on uninterruptedly and by a full staff of teachers. The religious services by the Toronto Ministerial Association at the Central Prison on Sunday afternoons, and at the Women's Reformatory on Sunday afternoons and Tuesday evenings, are still continued.

The agent of the Association gives his entire time to visiting the Central Prison and jail, finding shelter and employment for discharged prisoners and aiding and visiting the families of prisoners.

The Bible woman visits the women at the Women's Reformatory and those at the jail with regularity, and holds a religious service at the reformatory every Wednesday and Saturday. Clothing and work are found for a large number, and the women are looked after in many ways after their discharge. Some, in accordance with previous arrangement, are conveyed to the hospital, some to the House of Providence, some to the Haven, and some to the Industrial Refuge, Yorkville. The agent and Bible woman extend a helping hand to all, irrespective of nationality, creed, or color.

During the year the prison reform movement has been prosecuted with undiminished vigor. A large number of petitions were forwarded to the Dominion government with reference to a Dominion reformatory for young men. An interview was held with the Hon. Sir C. H. Tupper; and a memorial prepared by a committee appointed at a public meeting was subsequently forwarded to the Minister of Justice, setting forth at some length our views with regard to the organization of the proposed reformatory.

In October last your Secretary joined a deputation from the Ontario Medical Association in an interview with the Ontario government with regard to the establishment of one or more industrial reformatories for inebriates in the Province. The Hon. Sir Oliver Mowat, on behalf of the government, admitted that something should be done in the matter, but declined to assume the financial responsibility. Whatever help the government might give, he thought the initiative should be undertaken by the temperance and benevolent public.

We have been enabled by a special grant from the Ontario government to distribute during the year a large amount of literature on the county jail and county house of industry questions. In addition to this our agent has been enabled to visit a number of the counties, distributing petitions and holding public meetings in the interests of prison reform. Ministerial Associations, the members

of the Woman's Christian Temperance Union, and the press have rendered important aid to the cause. From Oct. 1, 1894, to June 1, 1895, there were 214,500 pages of prison reform literature printed and distributed by this Association.

In two of the counties an industrial home for the destitute poor is under course of erection, making, when completed, twelve in all in the Province; and in several other counties steps are being taken in the same direction.

Copies of the pamphlet on "County Paupers and County Houses of Industry," of which 11,000 copies were printed, have been sent to members of the municipal councils of every county, township, town, and incorporated village in the Province; to senators, members of Parliament, and members of the Ontario legislative assembly; to sheriffs, judges, jailers, and other county officials; to school inspectors and teachers; to presbyteries, Methodist district meetings, and Baptist associations, as well as to synods, conventions, unions, conferences; and to the General Assembly of the Presbyterian Church in Canada.

We have no hesitation in saying that the overcrowding of prisoners in the Central Prison, and the promiscuous association of prisoners and persons awaiting trial in our county jails, is a direct means of propagating both vice and crime. Facts have been brought to our notice in this connection which are too revolting to report. We cannot say more. We can simply urge the following: 1. At the Central Prison (*a*) sufficient cell accommodation to afford every prisoner a separate cell; and (*b*) the erection of a block of isolation cells for the separate confinement of incorrigible prisoners. 2. The adoption of the English system of separate confinement in our county jails.

We would most strongly urge that one flat in Toronto jail be converted to the English system for the absolute separation of first offenders, not only from all old offenders, but also from each other.

The grading of prisoners, and to a certain extent their classification also, would be much improved if separate provisions were made for the vagrant class. Toronto should have a workhouse, located on farm land convenient to the city, and where the inmates could be made to do something toward their own maintenance.

The work of properly caring for the neglected and dependent children of the Province is being attended to under the favorable

auspices of the Children's Protective Act of Ontario, which was passed some three years ago, and amended during the last session of Parliament. There are now twenty-five children's aid societies established in the various cities and towns for the special work of protecting children from neglect and ill-treatment, and also to provide such children as may be actually homeless with homes in private families. To aid in the work of securing desirable homes for dependent children, a large number of committees have been appointed in the various rural districts. These committees, when they fully realize the great value and importance of the work intrusted to them, will undoubtedly be able to render great service in placing the homeless children of the Province in homes where they will receive the kindness and attention which they require during youth. The family home system of caring for dependent children is now the recognized method of dealing with this class in Ontario. By this means they assimilate with the general community, and grow up in a natural atmosphere, free from the defects of institutionalism. Under this law there are at present about 150 children growing up happily and contentedly in foster homes, and this, too, without expense to any one but the families whose benevolent inclinations and love for children prompted them to take into their homes the little ones left destitute of parental care. This act is still in its infancy, and the general public is only beginning to comprehend its beneficent and far-reaching provisions. By degrees its advantages will be recognized by the various orphanages and other organizations dealing with children; and a complete and harmonious work will result on behalf of this class, which, above any other, has claims on our consideration. The superintendency of this work in the Province is in the hands of J. J. Kelso, who is always prepared to furnish any information concerning this work for children.

TABLES RELATING TO STATE INSTITUTIONS.

The following tables contain a directory of the State charitable and correctional institutions in the United States, as far as ascertainable, together with statistics showing the capacity of each institution, its population Dec. 31, 1893 and 1894, the expense of maintaining inmates, the estimated value of property, etc.

The question arose at the outset, What institutions shall be included under the title "State Institutions"? It was decided to include all institutions wholly or partly maintained from the State treasury.

We have been unable, however, to obtain a complete list of the institutions for dependent children which receive State aid or to obtain complete information respecting all of those whose names we did obtain. We have included one city institution, the Louisville Industrial School of Reform.

We have grouped together the twenty-two county insane asylums in the State of Wisconsin for the sake of convenience and to save space. It is probable that some institutions receiving State grants have been omitted, but we have used our best endeavors to make the list complete. And, so far as we are aware, there has never been so complete a list made of the State institutions of the country.

The statistics may require some explanation. Under the head of "capacity" we asked the superintendents to state the normal capacity of the institution without overcrowding.

Under "expense of maintenance" we asked the superintendents to include salaries of officers, etc., and to exclude expenditures for lands, buildings, and improvements. To ascertain the "net expense of maintenance," we asked them to deduct receipts from sales and labor of inmates, but not to deduct receipts from individuals, counties, or the United States for board of inmates. The cost per inmate was ascertained by dividing the net expense by the average number of inmates actually present in the institution during the year. In this way we endeavor to obtain, as nearly as possible, uniform results. As a consequence, the expense per capita, as shown, is in many cases different from that shown by the published reports of the institutions.

The work of preparing the table has been done by Mr. George G. Cowie, clerk of the Minnesota State Board of Corrections and Charities.

We are aware that, notwithstanding our best efforts, the work is imperfect; and we shall take it as a great favor to be informed of any mistakes or changes which may be observed by the reader. Corrections should be sent to H. H. Hart, General Secretary, St. Paul, Minn.

DIRECTORY OF STATE INSTITUTIONS FOR THE INSANE.

Name of Institution.	Location.	Established.	Name and Title of Superintendent.	Title of Managing Board.	Secretary of Board.
Alabama.					
Alabama Bryce Insane Hospital	Tuscaloosa	1854	J. T. Searcy, M.D.	Trustees	Dr. W. G. Somerville, Tuscaloosa.
Arizona.					
Territorial Insane Asylum	Phœnix	1885	J. B. Hamblin, M.D., Resident Physician.	Directors	
Arkansas.					
State Lunatic Asylum	Little Rock	1882	J. J. Robertson, M.D.	Trustees	W. M. Kavanaugh, Little Rock.
California.					
State Insane Asylum	Stockton	1853	Asa Clark, M.D., Medical Superintendent.	Directors	Major N. M. Orr, Stockton.
State Insane Asylum	Napa	1875	A. M. Gardner, M.D., Res. Physician.	Trustees	C. B. Suley, Napa.
State Insane Asylum	Agnew	—	F. W. Hatch, M.D.		
So. California Asylum for Insane & Inebriates	San Bernardino	1893	M. B. Campbell, M.D., Medical Director.	Trustees	T. W. Richardson, Riverside.
Mendocino Asylum	Ukiah	1889	E. W. King, Medical Superintendent.	Directors	J. M. Mannon, Ukiah.
Colorado.					
Colorado Insane Asylum	Pueblo	1879	P. R. Thombs, Superintendent.	Commissioners	L. W. Walker, Pueblo.
Connecticut.					
Connecticut Hospital for Insane	Middletown	1866	Jas. Olmstead, M.D., Supt. & Physician.	Trustees	Costello Lippett, Norwich.
Retreat for the Insane	Hartford	1824	Henry P. Stearns, M.D., Phys. & Supt.	Directors	James B. Cone.
Delaware.					
Delaware State Hospital	Farnhurst	1889	William H. Hancker, M.D.	Trustees	J. H. Wilson, M.D., Dover.
District of Columbia.					
Government Hospital for the Insane	Washington	1855	W. W. Godding, M.D.	Board of Visitors	
Florida.					
Florida Asylum for the Insane	Chattahoochee	—	John W. Trammell, M.D., Supt.	Commissioners	Hon. David Lang, Tallahassee.
Georgia.					
Georgia Lunatic Asylum	Milledgeville	—	Dr. T. O. Powell, Superintendent.	Trustees	J. A. Ansley.
Idaho.					
Idaho Insane Asylum	Blackfoot	1886	Jno. W. Givens, Medical Superintendent.	Directors	
Illinois.					
Central Hospital for Insane	Jacksonville	1847	Walter Watson, M.D.	Trustees	M. F. Dunlap, Jacksonville.
Northern Hospital for Insane	Elgin	1872	Arthur Loewy, M.D., Superintendent.	Trustees	Annas Hathaway, Elgin.
Eastern Hospital for Insane	Kankakee	1879	Clarke Gapen, M.D., Superintendent.	Trustees	
Southern Hospital for Insane	Anna	1870	William O. Lence, M.D.	Trustees	S. A. D. Rogers, Anna.
Asylum for Insane Criminals	Chester	1891	V. S. Benson, M.D., Medical Supt.	Trustees	W. V. Choisser Hamburg.
Indiana.					
Central Indiana Hospital for Insane	Indianapolis	1848	George F. Edenharter.	Board of Control	Daniel H. Davis, Knightsville.
Northern Indiana Hospital for Insane	Logansport	1888	Jos. G. Rogers, M.D., Ph.D., Med. Supt.	Board of Control	
Eastern Indiana Hospital for Insane	Richmond	1890	S. E. Smith, Medical Superintendent.	Board of Control	S. E. Smith, M.D.
Southern Indiana Hospital for Insane	Evansville				

STATISTICS OF STATE INSTITUTIONS FOR THE INSANE.

Name of Institution.	Location.	Capacity.	No. Inmates Present.		Report for Year ending	Expense of Maintenance.			Average No. Inmates Present.	Estimated Value of Property.
			Dec. 31, '93	Dec. 31, '94		Gross.	Net.	Per Inmate.		
Alabama.										
Alabama Bryce Insane Hospital	Tuscaloosa	800	1,100	1,210	Sept. 30, 1894	$116,929	$116,929	$107	1,094	$532,500
Arizona.										
Territorial Insane Asylum [b]	Phœnix	200								
Arkansas.										
Arkansas State Lunatic Asylum	Little Rock	620	570	484	Nov. 30, 1894	43,633	43,633	79	555	475,000
California.										
State Insane Asylum	Stockton	1,500	1,544	1,500	June 30, 1894	207,794	207,794	132	1,573	1,000,000
State Insane Asylum	Napa	900	1,355	1,323	June 30, 1894	198,817	—	144	1,379	
State Insane Asylum	Agnew	850	903	904	June 30, 1894	122,836	122,836	142	897	705,000
So. California Asylum for Insane and Inebriates	San Bernardino	400	175	291	June 30, 1894	62,785	62,785	360	174	495,000
Mendocino Asylum	Ukiah	500	124	264	June 30, 1894	31,648	31,648	337	155	515,000
Colorado.										
Colorado Insane Asylum	Pueblo	360	314	366	Dec. 20, 1894	52,063	52,063	146	355	320,000
Connecticut.										
Connecticut Hospital for Insane	Middletown	1,700	1,548	1,577	Dec. 31, 1894	232,509	226,516	146	1,555	
Retreat for the Insane	Hartford	—	143 [d]	150 [d]						
Delaware.										
Delaware State Hospital	Farnhurst	150	222	235	Nov. 30, 1894	35,986	35,986	154	233	175,000
District of Columbia.										
Government Hospital for the Insane	Washington	—	1,648	1,681 [d]	June 30, 1894	410,000 [a]	—	—	249 [a]	
Florida.										
Florida Asylum for the Insane	Chattahoochee	—	277	306	Dec. 31, 1894	47,000	—	159	295	
Georgia.										
Georgia Lunatic Asylum	Milledgeville	1,550	1,676	1,698	Sept. 30, 1894	185,598	185,598	108	1,709	
Idaho.										
Idaho Insane Asylum	Blackfoot	150	105	138	June 30, 1894	24,987	24,824	233	106	105,000
Illinois.										
Central Hospital for Insane	Jacksonville	1,200	1,202	1,204	June 30, 1894	169,968	167,104	139	1,198	1,095,583
Northern Hospital for Insane	Elgin	1,100	1,081	1,106	June 30, 1894	154,275	154,275	141	1,095	882,746
Eastern Hospital for Insane	Kankakee	2,000	2,018 [c]	2,096 [c]	June 30, 1894	308,745	—	—	2,018	1,697,912
Southern Hospital for Insane	Anna	965	818	842	June 30, 1894	117,376	113,748	134	847	833,700
Asylum for Insane Criminals	Chester	124	122	123	June 30, 1894	25,710	24,095	214	113	62,373
Indiana.										
Central Indiana Hospital for Insane	Indianapolis	1,525	1,462	1,433	Oct. 31, 1894	244,726	242,960	161	1,513	1,677,696
Northern Indiana Hospital for Insane	Logansport	506	423	499	Oct. 31, 1894	84,252	84,097	185	454	504,096
Eastern Indiana Hospital for Insane	Richmond	420	430	435	Oct. 31, 1894	88,883	88,821	206	431	581,898
Southern Indiana Hospital for Insane	Evansville	—	377	397	Oct. 31, 1894	79,807	79,678	205	387	508,939

[a] Partly estimated. [b] No report. [c] At June 30. [d] At March 31, 1894 and 1895.

DIRECTORY OF STATE INSTITUTIONS FOR THE INSANE, *Continued.*

Name of Institution.	Location.	Established.	Name and Title of Superintendent.	Title of Managing Board.	Secretary of Board.
Iowa.					
Iowa Hospital for the Insane	Mt. Pleasant	1854	H. A. Gilman, M.D	Trustees	J. H. Kulp, M.D., Davenport.
Iowa Hospital for the Insane	Independence	1868	Gershom H. Hill, M.D., Superintendent.	Trustees	Capt. W. E. Rosemond, Indep'nd'nce
Iowa Hospital for the Insane	Clarinda	1888	Frank C. Hoyt, M.D., Superintendent	Trustees	T. McK. Stuart, Chariton.
Kansas.					
Kansas State Insane Asylum	Osawatomie	1866	L. F. Wentworth, M.D.	Trustees	Morton Albaugh, Kingman.
Kansas State Insane Asylum	Topeka	1875	B. D. Eastman, M.D., Superintendent	Trustees	George Clark, Junction City.
Kentucky.					
Eastern Kentucky Asylum for Insane	Lexington	1824			
Western Kentucky Asylum for Insane	Hopkinsville	1849	Barton Warren Stone, Medical Supt.	Commissioners	James R. Wood, Hopkinsville.
Central Kentucky Asylum for Insane	Lakeland	1873	H. K. Pusey, M.D., Superintendent.	Commissioners	E. S. Porter, Anchorage.
Louisiana.					
Insane Asylum of the State of Louisiana	Jackson	1847	A. Gaydin, M.D., Supt. and Chief Phys.	Administrators	Dr. W. F. Hagaman, Lindsay.
Maine.					
Maine Insane Hospital	Augusta	—	B. T. Sanborn, M.D.	Trustees	Gen. R. B. Shepherd, Skowhegan.
Maryland.					
Maryland Hospital for the Insane	Catonsville	1797	George H. Rohé, M.D., Superintendent.	Managers	Barnes Compton, Baltimore.
Massachusetts.					
Worcester Lunatic Hospital	Worcester	1832	H. M. Quinby, M.D.	Trustees	Rockwood Hoar, Worcester.
Worcester Insane Asylum	Worcester	1877	E. V. Scribner, M.D.	Trustees	H. S. Nourse, South Lancaster.
Taunton Lunatic Hospital	Taunton	1854	J. F. Brown, M.D.	Trustees	
Northampton Lunatic Hospital	Northampton	1858	Edward B. Nims	Trustees	Sarah M. Butler, Northampton.
Danvers Lunatic Hospital	Danvers	1878	Charles W. Page, M.D.	Trustees	Solon Bancroft, Reading.
Westboro Insane Hospital	Westboro	1884	Dr. George S. Adams, Superintendent.	Trustees	Miss E. C. Durfee, Fall River.
Medfield Insane Hospital [a]	Medfield				
Michigan.					
Michigan Asylum for the Insane	Kalamazoo	1859	William M. Edwards, M.D.	Trustees	William A. Stone, M.D.
Eastern Michigan Asylum	Pontiac	1877	E. A. Christian, Medical Superintendent.	Trustees	E. A. Christian, M.D.
Northern Michigan Asylum	Traverse City	1881	James D. Munson, M.D., Medical Supt.	Trustees	
Mich. Asylum for Dangerous & Criminal Insane.	Ionia	1885	O. R. Long, Medical Superintendent.	Trustees	O. R. Long, M.D.
Upper Peninsula Insane Asylum [a]	Newberry				
Minnesota.					
St. Peter State Hospital	St. Peter	1866	H. A. Tomlinson, M.D.	Trustees	T. H. Titus.
Rochester State Hospital	Rochester	1878	Arthur F. Kilbourne	Trustees	T. H. Titus.
Fergus Falls State Hospital	Fergus Falls	1887	George O. Welch, M.D.	Trustees	T. H. Titus.
Mississippi.					
Mississippi State Lunatic Asylum	Jackson	1855	Thomas J. Mitchell, M.D.	Trustees	Isadore Strauss, Jackson.
East Mississippi Insane Asylum	Meridian	1884	J. M. Buchanan, M.D.	Trustees	S. B. Watts, Meridian.
Missouri.					
State Lunatic Asylum No. 1	Fulton	1851	R. S. Wilson, M.D.	Managers	G. E. Bell, Fulton.

[a] Under construction.

STATISTICS OF STATE INSTITUTIONS FOR THE INSANE, *Continued.*

Name of Institution.	Location.	Capacity.	No. Inmates Present.		Report for Year ending	Expense of Maintenance.			Average No. Inmates Present.	Estimated Value of Property.
			Dec. 31, '93.	Dec. 31, '94.		Gross.	Net.	Per Inmate.		
Iowa.										
Iowa Hospital for the Insane	Mt. Pleasant.	800	801	876	June 30, 1894	$145,973	$141,050	$167	844	$900,000
Iowa Hospital for the Insane	Independence	950	839	882	June 30, 1894	144,924	140,429	164	858	1,075 000
Iowa Hospital for the Insane	Clarinda	550	570	578	June 30, 1894	102,688	98,859	173	571	597,018
Kansas.										
Kansas State Insane Asylum	Osawatomie	750	773	767	June 30, 1894	116,299	116,299	151	771	563,148
Kansas State Insane Asylum	Topeka	700	754	762	June 30, 1894	115,632	114,772	152	757	711,855
Kentucky.										
Eastern Kentucky Asylum for Insane [c]	Lexington									
Western Kentucky Asylum for Insane	Hopkinsville	520	628	625	Sept. 30, 1894	84,271	82,944	132	629	355,818
Central Kentucky Asylum for Insane	Lakeland	950	948	1,029	Sept 30, 1894	143,023	138,438	154	982	597,684
Louisiana.										
Insane Asylum of the State of Louisiana	Jackson	800	713	801	Mar. 16, 1894	74,699	74,699	105	709	270,000
Maine.										
Maine Insane Hospital	Augusta	600	674	691	Nov. 30, 1894	174,000 [b]	—	256	680	
Maryland.										
Maryland Hospital for the Insane	Catonsville	400	445	463	Oct. 31, 1894	96,551	96,551	211	458	
Massachusetts.										
Worcester Lunatic Hospital	Worcester	650	828	921	Sept. 30, 1894	161,746	156,200	174	900	1,297,312
Worcester Insane Asylum	Worcester	365	449	447	Sept. 30, 1894	70,259	70,259	159	442	475,885
Taunton Lunatic Hospital	Taunton	650	744	806	Sept. 30, 1894	138,664	138,664	181	766	555,607
Northampton Lunatic Hospital	Northampton	500	489	513	Sept. 30, 1894	89,667	87,382	175	494	540,049
Danvers Lunatic Hospital	Danvers	600	866	914	Sept. 30, 1894	150,765	146,206	166	879	1,626,301
Westboro Insane Hospital	Westboro	575	495	557	Sept. 30, 1894	100,933	100,933	190	531	508,917
Medfield Insane Hospital [a]	Medfield									
Michigan.										
Michigan Asylum for the Insane	Kalamazoo	1,000	1,097	1,162	June 30, 1894	213,496	210,557	189	1,117	998,058
Eastern Michigan Asylum	Pontiac	850	943	1,021	June 30, 1894	169,303	166,246	174	955	829,350
Northern Michigan Asylum	Traverse City	1,000	871	998	June 30, 1894	187,245	17,651	174	950	736,179
Mich. Asy'm for Dangerous and Criminal Insane	Ionia	200	201	208	June 30, 1894	38,470	35,077	177	198	153,333
Upper Peninsula Insane Asylum [a]	Newberry									
Minnesota.										
St. Peter State Hospital	St. Peter	950	909	960	July 31, 1894	183,435	179,328	188	952	797,471
Rochester State Hospital	Rochester	1,050	1,133	1,140	July 31, 1894	178,834	174,558	158	1,106	610,082
Fergus Falls State Hospital	Fergus Falls	650	481	537	July 31, 1894	109,265	109,041	246	443	506,707
Mississippi.										
Mississippi State Lunatic Asylum	Jackson	800	675	739	Sept. 30, 1894	77,500	77,500	109	706	420,000
East Mississippi Insane Asylum	Meridian	240	244	243	Sept. 30, 1894	30,500	30,500	127 [b]	240 [b]	125,000
Missouri.										
State Lunatic Asylum No. 1	Fulton	625	—	562	Dec. 31, 1894	—	—	186		

[a] Under construction. [b] Partly estimated. [c] No report.

DIRECTORY OF STATE INSTITUTIONS FOR THE INSANE, *Continued.*

Name of Institution.	Location.	Established.	Name and Title of Superintendent.	Title of Managing Board.	Secretary of Board.
Missouri, *Continued.*					
State Lunatic Asylum No. 2	St. Joseph	1872	Charles R. Woodson, M.D	Managers	Frank Morse, St. Joseph.
State Lunatic Asylum No. 3	Nevada	1887	J. F. Robinson, M.D	Managers	G. B. Carstarphen, Nevada.
Montana.					
Insane Asylum of Montana	Warm Springs	1891	Dr. A. H. Mitchell	Commissioners	
Nebraska.					
Nebraska Hospital for the Insane	Lincoln	1873	John T. Hay, M.D., Superintendent	Bd. Public Lands..	Joel A. Piper, Lincoln.
Norfolk Hospital for the Insane	Norfolk	1887	C. B. Little, M.D	Bd Public Lands..	Joel A. Piper.
Hastings Asylum for Chronic Insane	Hastings	1888	Robert Damerell, M.D., Superintendent	Bd. Public Lands..	Joel A. Piper.
Nevada.					
Nevada Hospital for Mental Diseases	Reno	—	H. Bergstein, M.D., Superintendent	Commissioners	
New Hampshire.					
New Hampshire Asylum for the Insane	Concord	1843	C. P. Bancroft, M.D	Trustees	J. B. Walker, Concord.
New Jersey.					
New Jersey State Hospital	Trenton	—	John W. Ward, Medical Director	Managers	Charles H. Green, Morristown.
New Jersey State Hospital	Morris Plains	—	B. D. Evans, Medical Director	Managers	
Essex County Hospital for Insane	Newark	1872	L. S. Hinckley, M.D		
Hudson County Insane Asylum	Snake Hill	—	G. W. King, M.D		
Camden County Insane Asylum	Blackwood	—	George Kleinheinz		
Burlington County Insane Asylum	New Lisbon	—	T. B. Gaskill		
Passaic County Insane Asylum	Paterson	—	John J. Donnelly		
Gloucester County Insane Asylum	Clarksboro	—	George G. Weatherby		
Cumberland County Insane Asylum	Bridgeton	—	William Ogden		
Salem County Insane Asylum	Woodstown	—	David Dickinson		
New Mexico.					
New Mexico Insane Asylum	Las Vegas	1893	D. F. Marron y Alonso, Medical Supt	Directors	Gustave A. Rothgeb.
New York.					
Utica State Hospital	Utica	1843	G. Alder Blumer, M.D	Managers	George E. Dunham, Utica.
Willard State Hospital	Willard	1869	Theodore H. Kellogg, M.D	Trustees	A. S. Stothoff, Watkins.
Hudson River State Hospital	Poughkeepsie	1871	Charles W. Pilgrim, M.D., Med. Supt	Managers	Allison Butts, Poughkeepsie.
Middletown State Homœopathic Hospital	Middletown	1871	Selden H. Talcott, M.D., Ph.D	Trustees	George H. Decker, Middletown.
Buffalo State Hospital	Buffalo	1872	Arthur W. Hurd, A.M., M.D., Supt	Managers	Hon. Elias Hawley, Buffalo.
Binghamton State Hospital	Binghamton	1879	Charles G. Wagner, M.D	Trustees	John Anderson, Binghamton.
Rochester State Hospital	Rochester	1891	Eugene H. Howard, M.D., Supt	Managers	E. H. Howard, M.D.
St. Lawrence State Hospital	Ogdensburg	1886	Peter M. Wise, Medical Superintendent	Managers	Jas. M. Wells, Ogdensburg.
Matteawan State Hospital (insane convicts)	Matteawan	1855	H. E. Allison, Medical Superintendent	Supt. State Prisons	
North Carolina.					
North Carolina Insane Asylum	Raleigh	1856	Dr. George L. Kirby, Superintendent	Directors	W. T. Smith.
State Hospital	Morganton	—	Dr. P. L. Murphy, Superintendent	Directors	
Eastern Hospital of North Carolina	Goldsboro	1880	Dr. J. F. Miller	Directors	R. P. Howell, Goldsboro.

STATISTICS OF STATE INSTITUTIONS FOR THE INSANE, *Continued.*

Name of Institution.	Location.	Capacity.	No. Inmates Present.		Report for Year ending	Expense of Maintenance.			Average No. Inmates Present.	Estimated Value of Property.
			Dec. 31,'93.	Dec. 31,'94		Gross.	Net.	Per Inmate.		
Missouri, *Continued.*										
State Lunatic Asylum No. 2	St. Joseph	740	642	669	Dec. 31, 1894	$95,000 a	—	$162 a	662	$375,000
State Lunatic Asylum No. 3	Nevada	600	379	457	Dec. 31, 1894	85,000 a	—	196	427	450,000
Montana.										
Insane Asylum of Montana	Warm Springs	483	262 c	296 c	Nov. 30, 1894	90,080				
Nebraska.										
Nebraska Hospital for the Insane	Lincoln	320	341	342	Dec. 31, 1894	59,324	$59,324	175	338	495,772
Norfolk Hospital for the Insane	Norfolk	204	198	204	April 1, 1894	42,371	42,371	—	—	290,000
Hastings Asylum for Chronic Insane	Hastings	400	—	442	Dec. 31, 1894	70,000 a	—	160 a	442	
Nevada.										
Nevada Hospital for Mental Diseases	Reno	150	181	190	Dec. 31, 1894	35,000 a	—	185	187 a	
New Hampshire.										
New Hampshire Asylum for the Insane	Concord	350	374	406	Sept. 30, 1894	98,426	96,413	251	383	
New Jersey.										
New Jersey State Hospital	Trenton	800	900	940	Oct. 31, 1894	208,591	—	227	917	
New Jersey State Hospital	Morris Plains	800	1,012	1,049	Oct. 31, 1894	262,013	262,013	254	1,032	2,737,304
Essex County Hospital for Insane e	Newark	800	553	608	Dec. 31, 1894	124,939	124,067	214	579	500,000
Hudson County Insane Asylum e	Snake Hill	600	—	324	—	30,098 d				
Camden County Insane Asylum e	Blackwood	150	—	150 a	—	12,800 d				
Burlington County Insane Asylum e	New Lisbon	56	—	54 a	—	5,785 d				
Passaic County Insane Asylum e	Paterson	—	—	41 a	—	3,057 d				
Gloucester County Insane Asylum e	Clarksboro	—	—	15 a	—	1,063 d				
Cumberland County Insane Asylum e	Bridgeton	20	—	21 a	—	3,860 d				
Salem County Insane Asylum e	Woodstown	—	—	14 a	—	1,831 d				
New Mexico.										
New Mexico Insane Asylum	Las Vegas	75	33	38	Oct. 31, 1894	13,000	—	371 a	35	42,277
New York.										
Utica State Hospital	Utica	970	976	997	Sept. 30, 1894	184,535	184,535	189	978	987,000
Willard State Hospital	Willard	2,100	2,171	2,176	Sept. 30, 1894	300,721	295,587	137	2,165	1,648,969
Hudson River State Hospital	Poughkeepsie	1,400	1,320	1,461	Sept. 30, 1894	293,178	292,920	216	1,354	2,205,970
Middletown State Homœopathic Hospital	Middletown	1,000	996	1,076	Sept. 30, 1894	200,362	200,362	196	1,022	1,233,146
Buffalo State Hospital	Buffalo	725	648	753	Sept. 30, 1894	127,439	127,256	188	682	1,601,860
Binghamton State Hospital	Binghamton	1,000	1,271 b	1,219 b	Sept. 30, 1894	214,588	—	172 a	1,244	880,000
Rochester State Hospital	Rochester	450	438	450	Sept. 30, 1894	100,753	98,604	230	436	277,864
St. Lawrence State Hospital	Ogdensburg	1,210	689	1,092	Sept. 30, 1894	208,879	208,879	224	933	2,075,000
Matteawan State Hospital (insane convicts)	Matteawan	550	421	475	Sept. 30, 1894	88,081	87,553	203	431	930,000
North Carolina.										
North Carolina Insane Asylum	Raleigh	350	288 c	305 c	Nov. 30, 1894	48,654	—	160 a	305	
State Hospital	Morganton	500	556 c	541 c	Nov. 30, 1894	98,015	—	150	556	650,000
Eastern Hospital of North Carolina	Goldsboro	275	286	307	Nov. 30, 1894	34,012	34,012	116	290	190,000

a Partly estimated. b At Sept. 30. c At Nov. 30. d State appropriation. e Partly supported by the State.

DIRECTORY OF STATE INSTITUTIONS FOR THE INSANE, *Continued.*

Name of Institution.	Location.	Established.	Name and Title of Superintendent.	Title of Managing Board.	Secretary of Board.
North Dakota.					
North Dakota Hospital for Insane	Jamestown	1883	O. Wellington Archibald, M.D., Supt.	Trustees	Harry Cornwall, Eldridge.
Ohio.					
Columbus State Hospital	Columbus	—	A. B. Richardson, M.D., Medical Supt.	Trustees	A. B. Richardson.
Cleveland State Hospital	Cleveland	1855	H. C. Eyman, Medical Superintendent.	Trustees	H. C. Eyman.
Longview Hospital	Carthage	1860	F. W. Harmon, M.D.	Directors	W. H. Campbell, Cincinnati.
Dayton State Hospital	Dayton	1855	J. M. Ratliff, Superintendent.	Trustees	J. M. Ratliff.
Athens State Hospital	Athens	1874	C. O. Dunlap, M.D., Medical Supt.	Trustees	C. O. Dunlap.
Toledo State Hospital	Toledo	1888	H. A. Tobey, M.D., Superintendent.	Trustees	H. A. Tobey.
Massillon State Hospital [a]	Massillon				
Oregon.					
Oregon State Insane Asylum	Salem	1883	L. L. Rowland, Medical Superintendent.	Trustees	W. S. Duniway, Salem.
Pennsylvania.					
State Hospital for Insane	Harrisburg	1851	H. L. Orth, M.D., Supt. and Physician.	Trustees	F. Asbury Awl, Harrisburg.
Western Penna. Hospital for Insane	Dixmont	1856	Dr. Henry A. Hutchinson, Phys. & Supt.	Managers	M. W. M'Millan, Pittsburg.
State Hospital for Insane	Danville	1868	H. B. Meredith, M.D., Supt. & Phys.	Trustees	Thomas Chalfont, Danville.
State Hospital for Insane	Norristown	—	R. R. Richardson, Chief Physician.		
State Hospital for Insane	Warren	1880	John Curwen, M.D.	Trustees	G. N. Parmlee, Warren.
State Asylum for the Chronic Insane of Penna.	Wernersville	1894	W. Brown Ewing, A.M., M.D.	Trustees	J. L. Lemberger, Lebanon.
Rhode Island.					
Butler Hospital for the Insane	Providence	1844	W. A. Gorton, M.D., Phys. & Supt.	Trustees	Charles Morris Smith.
State Asylum for the Insane	Cranston	1870	James H. Eastman, Superintendent.	Bd. of State Char.	Charles H. Peckham.
South Carolina.					
South Carolina Lunatic Asylum	Columbia	1822	J. W. Babcock, M.D.	Board of Regents	J. W. Bunch, Columbia.
South Dakota.					
South Dakota Hospital for the Insane	Yankton	1879	L. C. Mead, M.D., Superintendent.	State Bd. of Char.	Hon. Zina Richey.
Tennessee.					
Eastern Hospital for Insane	Knoxville	1884	Michael Campbell, M.D.	Trustees	
Central Hospital for the Insane	Nashville	—	John A. Beauchamp, M.D.	Trustees	
Western Hospital for the Insane	Bolivar	—	J. P. Douglas, M.D., Medical Supt.	Trustees	
Texas.					
State Lunatic Asylum	Austin	1857	F. S. White, M.D., Superintendent.		
North Texas Hospital for the Insane	Terrell	—	C. M. Rosser, M.D., Superintendent		
South-western Insane Asylum	San Antonio	1892	B. M. Worsham, M.D., Superintendent.	Managers	B. M. Worsham.
Utah.					
Territorial Insane Asylum	Provo	1885	Walter R. Pike, M.D., Med. Supt.	Directors	A. O. Smoot, Provo.
Vermont.					
Brattleboro Retreat	Brattleboro	1834	S. E. Lawton, M.D., Superintendent.	Trustees	S. E. Lawton.
Vermont State Asylum for the Insane	Waterbury	1888	W. W. Giddings, M.D.	Trustees	L. H. Atherton.

[a] Under construction.

STATISTICS OF STATE INSTITUTIONS FOR THE INSANE, *Continued.*

Name of Institution.	Location.	Capacity.	No. Inmates Present.		Report for Year ending	Expense of Maintenance.			Average No. Inmates Present.	Estimated Value of Property
			Dec. 31,'93.	Dec. 31,'94.		Gross.	Net.	Per Inmate.		
North Dakota.										
North Dakota Hospital for Insane	Jamestown	300	313	324	Oct. 31, 1894	$66,215	$66,215	$225	294	$267,000
Ohio.										
Columbus State Hospital	Columbus	1,275	1,119	1,197	Nov. 15, 1894	185,715	182,140	159	1,149	1,900,000
Cleveland State Hospital	Cleveland	900	851	929	Nov. 15, 1894	135,251	121,215	134	905	1,510,000
Longview Hospital	Carthage	1,000	910	953	Oct 31, 1894	144,516	142,805	155	923	1,313,725
Dayton State Hospital	Dayton	800	791	795	Nov. 15, 1894	118,257	109,970	138	792	
Athens State Hospital	Athens	813	811	821	Nov. 15, 1894	112,100	112,100	136	813	709,000
Toledo State Hospital	Toledo	1,050	1,194	1,183	Nov. 15, 1894	142,094	142,094	120 [b]	1,183	1,000,000
Massillon State Hospital [a]	Massillon									
Oregon.										
Oregon State Insane Asylum	Salem	950	921	977	Nov. 30, 1894	227,768	113,884	118	950	
Pennsylvania.										
State Hospital for Insane	Harrisburg	700	800	796	Sept. 30, 1894	149,666	147,790	187	791	454,409
Western Pennsylvania Hospital for Insane	Dixmont	600	—	703	Sept. 30, 1894	141,318	141,318	201	703	1,000,000
State Hospital for Insane	Danville	700	1,008	917	Sept. 30, 1894	179,622	175,491	176	999	980,600
State Hospital for Insane [c]	Norristown									
State Hospital for Insane	Warren	700	892	897	Nov. 30, 1894	166,862	159,982	175	912	1,062,314
State Asylum for the Chronic Insane of Penna.	Wernersville	775	—	752	Sept. 30, 1894	16,143	16,143	331	488	490,000
Rhode Island.										
Butler Hospital for the Insane	Providence	—	179	181	Dec. 31, 1894	120,663				
State Asylum for the Insane	Cranston	600	580	609	Dec. 31, 1894	—	—	126	595	
South Carolina.										
South Carolina Lunatic Asylum	Columbia	800	759	816	Oct. 31, 1894	107,751	107,751	138	778	620,000
South Dakota.										
South Dakota Hospital for the Insane	Yankton	400	344	384	June 30, 1894	73,771	73,771	216	341	
Tennessee.										
Eastern Hospital for Insane	Knoxville	250	—	282	Dec. 19, 1894	48,705				
Central Hospital for the Insane [c]	Nashville	400								
Western Hospital for the Insane	Bolivar	350	—	369	Dec. 19, 1894	56,609 [b]	—	171 [b]	330 [b]	
Texas.										
State Lunatic Asylum [c]	Austin	675	612 [d]	660 [e]						
North Texas Hospital for the Insane [c]	Terrell	800	729 [d]	800 [e]						
South-western Insane Asylum	San Antonio	250	195	240	Oct. 31, 1894	46,740	46,226	221	209	250,000
Utah.										
Territorial Insane Asylum	Provo	350	189	209	Nov. 30, 1894	33,883	33,883	184	201	400,000
Vermont.										
Brattleboro Retreat	Brattleboro	400	369	388	June 30, 1894	70,516	70,516	186	378	
Vermont State Asylum for the Insane	Waterbury	200	201	220	June 30, 1894	29,000	29,000	153	189	210,000

[a] Under construction. [b] Partly estimated. [c] No report. [d] At Oct. 31, 1892. [e] At June 30, 1895.

DIRECTORY OF STATE INSTITUTIONS FOR THE INSANE, *Concluded.*

Name of Institution.	Location.	Established	Name and Title of Superintendent.	Title of Managing Board.	Secretary of Board.
Virginia.					
Eastern State Hospital	Williamsburg	1773	James D. Moncure, Phys. and Supt.	Directors	J. L. Mercer, Williamsburg.
Western State Hospital	Staunton	1828	Benjamin Blackford, M.D., Med. Supt.	Directors	C. J. Armistead, Staunton.
Central State Hospital	Petersburg	1869	Randolph Barksdale, M.D., Supt. & Phys.	Directors	
South-western State Hospital	Marion	1887	R. J. Preston, A.M., M.D., Supt	Directors	
West Virginia.					
West Virginia Hospital for Insane	Weston	1864	W. P. Crumbacker, M.D., Supt	Directors	R. A. Haynes, Weston.
Second Hospital for Insane	Spencer	1893	W. D. Row, M.D., Superintendent	Directors	A. B. Welles, Washington, D.C.
Washington.					
Western Washington Hospital for Insane	Steilacoom	1876	John W. Waughop, M.D.	Trustees	J. S. Whitehouse, Tacoma.
Eastern Washington Hospital for Insane	Medical Lake	1891	John M. Semple, M.D.	Trustees	Charles McDonall, Medical Lake.
Wisconsin.					
Wisconsin State Hospital for Insane	Mendota	1860	Wm. B. Lyman, M.D., Supt	Board of Control	D. S. Comly.
Northern Hospital for Insane	Winnebago	1873	W. A. Gordon	Board of Control	D. S. Comly.
Milwaukee Hospital for Insane	Wauwatosa	1880	M. J. White, M.D., Medical Supt.	Trustees	A. F. Wallshlaeger, Wauwatosa.
County Asylums for Chronic Insane (22 asylums)					
Wyoming.					
Wyoming State Insane Asylum	Evanston	1889	C. H. Solier, M.D., Superintendent	Board of Charities	Estelle Reel, Cheyenne.
Canadian Institutions.					
Asylum for Insane	Hamilton, Ont	1876	James Russell, M.D., Medical Supt.	Inspect. of Asyl'ms	
Rockwood Hospital for Insane	Kingstown, Ont.	1855	C. K. Clarke, M.D.	Inspect. of Asyl'ms	
Asylum for Insane	London, Ont.	—	R. M. Bucke, Medical Superintendent.	Inspect. of Asyl'ms	
Hospital for Insane	Toronto, Ont.	1851	Daniel Clark, Medical Superintendent	Inspect. of Asyl'ms	
Asylum for the Insane	Selkirk, Man.	1885	Dr. David Young, Medical Supt.	Gov't of Manitoba	Minister of Public Works.

STATISTICS OF STATE INSTITUTIONS FOR THE INSANE, *Concluded.*

Name of Institution.	Location.	Capacity.	No. Inmates Present.		Report for Year ending	Expense of Maintenance.			Average No. Inmates Present.	Estimated Value of Property.
			Dec. 31,'93.	Dec. 31,'94.		Gross.	Net.	Per Inmate.		
Virginia.										
Eastern State Hospital	Williamsburg	525	417	463	Sept. 30, 1894	$68,139	$68,139	$153	444	$190,000
Western State Hospital	Staunton	850	—	731	Sept. 30, 1894	99,283	96,502	141	681	275,000
Central State Hospital	Petersburg	—	763 [b]	770 [b]	Sept. 30, 1894	75,477	—	97	802	
South-western State Hospital	Marion	250	281	290	Sept. 30, 1894	47,430	43,014	151	286	189,091
West Virginia.										
West Virginia Hospital for Insane	Weston	800	944	945	Sept. 30, 1894	115,662	115,662	122	951	
Second Hospital for Insane	Spencer	250	48 [b]	123 [b]	Sept. 30, 1894	24,719	24,719	—	70	
Washington										
Western Washington Hospital for Insane	Steilacoom	600	412	458	Sept. 30, 1894	86,149	86,149	202	427	300,000
Eastern Washington Hospital for Insane	Medical Lake	300	191	216	Sept. 30, 1894	45,060	45,060	228	197	237,386
Wisconsin.										
Wisconsin State Hospital for Insane	Mendota	497	545	422	Sept. 30, 1894	108,434	—	209	519	680,141
Northern Hospital for Insane	Winnebago	550	654	583	Sept. 30, 1894	119,397	116,188	194	624	857,704
Milwaukee Hospital for Insane	Wauwatosa	480	347	364	Sept. 30, 1894	71,197	64,400 [a]	200	321	320,200
County Asylums for Chronic Insane (22 asylums) [c]	—	—	2,256	2,491	Sept. 30, 1894	227,756	13,098	91	2,159	
Wyoming.										
Wyoming State Insane Asylum	Evanston	60	44	45	Sept. 30, 1894	9,775	9,775	219	45	60,000
Canadian Institutions.										
Asylum for Insane	Hamilton, Ont.	1,001	907	986	Sept. 30, 1894	107,867	107,867	114	947	
Rockwood Hospital for Insane	Kingston, "	592	550	570	Sept. 30, 1894	76,944	—	137	562	320,000
Asylum for Insane	London, "	1,005	1,015	1,014	Sept. 30, 1894	129,407	—	127	1,019	
Hospital for Insane	Toronto, "	703	700	703	Sept. 30, 1894	99,400	—	125	692	960,000
Asylum for the Insane	Selkirk, Man.	156	126	151	Dec. 31, 1894	29,588	26,011	183	142	200,254

[a] Estimated. [b] At Sept. 30. [c] Partly supported by the State.

DIRECTORY OF STATE SOLDIERS' HOMES.

Name of Institution.	Location.	Established.	Name and Title of Superintendent.	Title of Managing Board.	Secretary of Board.
California.					
Veterans' Home	Yountsville	—	Col. G. H. A. Dunpfel	Directors	J. J. Scoville.
Colorado.					
Soldiers' and Sailors' Home	Monte Vista	1891	S. M. French, Commandant	Commissioners	W. P. Harbottle, Salida.
Connecticut.					
Fitch's Home for Soldiers	Noroton Heights	—	Capt. James N. Coe, Superintendent	—	Col. W. E. Morgan.
Idaho.					
Soldiers' Home	Boisé City	1894	Wm. C. Maxey, M.D., Command't & Surg.	Trustees	Secretary of State.
Illinois.					
Illinois Soldiers' and Sailors' Home	Quincy	1887	Capt. Wm. H. Kirkwood, Superintendent.	Trustees	William Murray, Quincy.
Iowa.					
Iowa Soldiers' Home	Marshalltown	1886	J. R. Ratekin, Commandant	Commissioners	J. J. Russell, Jefferson.
Kansas.					
Kansas State Soldiers' Home	Fort Dodge	1889	C. M. Cunningham, Commandant	Managers	J. H. Stewart, Lawrence.
Massachusetts.					
Soldiers' Home in Massachusetts	Chelsea	1882	Geo. W. Creasey, Superintendent	Trustees	George T. Evans, Cambridgeport.
Michigan.					
Michigan Soldiers' Home	Grand Rapids	1885	B. F. Graves, Commandant	Managers	L. G. Rutherford, Grand Rapids.
Minnesota.					
Minnesota Soldiers' Home	Minnehaha	1887	Thomas McMillan, Commandant	Trustees	I. H. B. Beebee, St. Paul.
Nebraska.					
Nebraska Soldiers' and Sailors' Home	Grand Island	1888	John W. Wilson, Commandant	Vis. & Ex. Board.	L. E. Bates, Aurora.
New Hampshire.					
New Hampshire Soldiers' Home	Tilton	1889	Capt. Ervin H. Smith, Commandant	Managers	Col. Daniel Hall, Dover.
New Jersey.					
New Jersey Home for Disabled Soldiers	Kearny	1866	Major Peter F. Rogers, Superintendent	Managers	The Superintendent.
New York.					
New York State Soldiers' and Sailors' Home	Bath	1879	William F. Rogers, Superintendent	Trustees	Otis H. Smith, Bath.
North Dakota.					
State Soldiers' Home	Lisbon	1891			
Ohio.					
Ohio Soldiers' and Sailors' Home	Sandusky	1886	Manning Ferguson Force, Superintend't	Trustees	Hon. J. J. Sullivan, Cleveland.
Oregon.					
Oregon Soldiers' Home	Roseburgh	—	Wallace Baldwin, Commandant		
Pennsylvania.					
Pennsylvania Soldiers' and Sailors' Home	Erie	1886	Major W. W. Tyson, Commander	Trustees	Gen. T. J. Stewart, Philadelphia.
Rhode Island.					
Rhode Island Soldiers' Home	Bristol				
South Dakota.					
South Dakota Soldiers' Home	Hot Springs	1890	J. P. Megrew, Commandant	Commissioners	O. E. Dewey, Watertown.

STATISTICS OF STATE SOLDIERS' HOMES.

Name of Institution.	Location.	Capacity.	No. Inmates Present.		Report for Year ending	Expense of Maintenance.			Average No. Inmates Present.	Estimated Value of Property.
			Dec. 31,'93.	Dec. 31,'94		Gross.	Net.	Per Inmate.		
California.										
Veterans' Home	Yountsville	—	402	—	June 30, 1894 [b]	$72,063	$72,063	$171	420	
Colorado.										
Soldiers' and Sailors' Home	Monte Vista	82	77	88	Nov. 30, 1894	15,500	15,500	199	78	$43,000
Connecticut.										
Soldiers' Home	Noroton	317	186	—	June 30, 1894 [b]	57,843	57,843	200	289	
Idaho.										
Idaho Soldiers' Home	Boisé	100	—	3	Dec. 31, 1894	650	650	—	—	34,600
Illinois.										
Illinois Soldiers' and Sailors' Home	Quincy	1,125	1,123	1,120	June 30, 1894 [b]	127,423	119,182	121	988	393,636
Iowa.										
Iowa Soldiers' Home	Marshalltown	490	390 [a]	478 [a]	June 30, 1894	66,824	57,155	169	338 [c]	240,000
Kansas.										
Kansas State Soldiers' Home	Fort Dodge	300	261 [a]	289 [a]	June 30, 1894 [b]	13,174	13,174	199	66 [c]	135,000
Massachusetts.										
Soldiers' Home in Massachusetts	Chelsea	360	322	330	June 30, 1894 [b]	46,222	45,007	179	252	150,000
Michigan.										
Michigan Soldiers' Home	Grand Rapids	650	544 [a]	630 [a]	June 30, 1894 [b]	72,804	70,201	155	453 [c]	193,514
Minnesota.										
Minnesota Soldiers' Home	Minnehaha	350	294	363	June 30, 1894 [b]	59,993	54,853	203	270	288,950
Nebraska.										
Nebraska Soldiers' and Sailors' Home	Grand Island	150	150 [a]	212 [a]	June 30, 1894 [b]	24,863	24,863	248	100 [c]	110,000
New Hampshire.										
New Hampshire Soldiers' Home	Tilton	100	70	83	June 30, 1894 [b]	14,287	14,287	246	58	46,000
New Jersey.										
New Jersey Home for Disabled Soldiers	Kearny	425	370	395	June 30, 1894 [b]	52,632	52,632	153	344	
New York.										
New York State Soldiers' and Sailors' Home	Bath	1,200	959	1,017	June 30, 1894 [b]	139,683	139,683	142	985	372,813
North Dakota.										
State Soldiers' Home	Lisbon	—	—	—	June 30, 1894	18,000 [d]				
Ohio.										
Ohio Soldiers' and Sailors' Home	Sandusky	800	945	1,011	June 30, 1894 [b]	138,775	138,775	155	894	550,000
Oregon.										
Oregon Soldiers' Home	Roseburgh									
Pennsylvania.										
Pennsylvania Soldiers' and Sailors' Home	Erie	550	386	392	June 30, 1894 [b]	69,192	69,192	194	356	436,824
Rhode Island.										
Rhode Island Soldiers' Home	Bristol	—	112	124	June 30, 1894 [b]	25,339	25,339	251	101	
South Dakota.										
South Dakota Soldiers' Home	Hot Springs	225	108 [a]	118 [a]	June 30, 1894 [b]	20,795	20,795	221	94 [c]	87,000

[a] Includes females. [b] Taken from report of National Soldiers' Home for year ending June 30, 1894. [c] Average based on male inmates. [d] State appropriation.

DIRECTORY OF STATE SOLDIERS' HOMES, *Concluded.*

Name of Institution.	Location.	Established.	Name and Title of Superintendent.	Title of Managing Board.	Secretary of Board.
Vermont.					
Soldiers' Home in Vermont	Bennington	—	Major R. J. Coffey, Superintendent	Trustees	C. C. Kinsman, Rutland.
Washington.					
Washington Soldiers' Home	Orting	—	Capt. S. F. Street, Commandant	—	Lieut. A. H. Adams.
Wisconsin.					
Wisconsin Veterans' Home	Waupaca	1887	Columbus Caldwell, Commandant	Trustees	J. H. Woodworth, Milwaukee.
Confederate Soldiers' Homes.					
Soldiers' Home	Sweet Home, Ark.	—	Jno. R. Johnson, Superintendent		
Soldiers' Home	Shreveport, La.				
Maryland Line Confederate Soldiers' Home	Pikesville	—	George N. Pope		
Confederate Home	Higginsville, Mo.	1890	T. W. Cassell, Superintendent	Exec. Committee.	Capt. W. P. Barlow, St. Louis.
Soldiers' Home	Raleigh, N. C.	—	James H. Fuller		
Confederate Soldiers' Home	Nashville, Tenn.	1889	R. H. Dudley, President	Trustees	John P. Hickman, Nashville.
Texas Confederate Home	Austin, Tex.	1884	W. P. Hardeman, Superintendent	Managers	William Von Rosenberg.
Lee Camp Soldiers' Home	Richmond, Va.	1884	N. V. Randolph, President	Visitors	Capt. Jas. W. Pegram.

STATISTICS OF STATE SOLDIERS' HOMES, *Concluded.*

Name of Institution.	Location.	Capacity.	No. Inmates Present.		Report for Year ending	Expense of Maintenance.			Average No. Inmates Present.	Estimated Value of Property.
			Dec. 31, '93.	Dec. 31, '94.		Gross.	Net.	Per Inmate.		
Vermont.										
Soldiers' Home in Vermont	Bennington	110	45	—	June 30, 1894 [b]	$15,952	$15,952	$253	63	
Washington.										
Washington Soldiers' Home	Orting	—	55	—	June 30, 1894 [b]	26,683	26,683	287	93	
Wisconsin.										
Wisconsin Veterans' Home	Waupaca	320	288 [a]	311 [a]	June 30, 1894 [b]	29,812	29,812	168	177 [c]	$130,000
Confederate Soldiers' Homes.										
Soldiers' Home	Sweet Home, Ark.									
Soldiers' Home	Shreveport, La.									
Maryland Line Confederate Soldiers' Home	Pikesville									
Confederate Home	Higginsville, Mo.	—	115	113	Dec. 31, 1894	12,213	12,213	—	—	75,000
Soldiers' Home	Raleigh, N C.									
Confederate Soldiers' Home	Nashville, Tenn.	125	65	87	Dec. 31, 1894	8,200	7,500	96	76	100,000
Texas Confederate Home	Austin, Tex.	—	121	147	Nov. 30, 1894	46,702 [f]	—	180 [e]	130 [e]	62,130
Lee Camp Soldiers' Home	Richmond, Va.	—	194 [d]	—	—	—	—	—	—	38,000

[a] Includes females. [b] Taken from report of National Soldiers' Home for year ending June 30, 1894. [c] Average based on male inmates. [d] Number on roll.
[e] Estimated. [f] Two years.

DIRECTORY OF STATE INSTITUTIONS FOR THE DEAF AND DUMB.

Name of Institution.	Location.	Established.	Name and Title of Superintendent.	Title of Managing Board.	Secretary of Board.
Alabama.					
Alabama Institute for the Deaf	Talladega	1860	J. H. Johnson, A.M., Principal	Trustees	J. H. Johnson.
School for Negro Deaf-mutes and Blind	Talladega	—	J. H. Johnson, A.M., Principal	Trustees	
Arkansas.					
Arkansas Deaf and Mute Institute	Little Rock	1879	Frank B. Yates, Superintendent	Directors	W. M. Kavanaugh, Little Rock.
California.					
Institution for Deaf and Blind	Berkeley	1860	Warring Wilkinson, Principal	Directors	W. L. Prather, Oakland.
Colorado.					
School for the Deaf and the Blind	Colorado Springs	1874	D. C. Dudley, Superintendent	Trustees	Jos. F. Humphrey, Colorado Springs.
Connecticut.					
American School at Hartford for the Deaf	Hartford	1816	Job Williams, Principal	Directors	A. A. Welch, Hartford.
District of Columbia.					
Columbia Institution for the Deaf and Dumb	Washington	1858	Edward M. Gallaudet, Ph.D., LL.D.	Visitors	John B. Wight.
Florida.					
Florida Blind and Deaf-mute Institute	St. Augustine	1885	Henry N. Felkel, Principal	Managers	State Supt. Public Instruction.
Georgia.					
Georgia School for the Deaf	Cave Spring	1846	Wesley O. Connor, Principal	Trustees	D. W. Simmons, Cave Spring.
Illinois.					
Ill. Institution for Education of Deaf and Dumb.	Jacksonville	1846	S. T. Walker, M.A., Superintendent	Trustees	Chas. E. Axt, Odell.
Indiana.					
Institution for Education of Deaf and Dumb	Indianapolis	—	R. O. Johnson	Trustees	
Iowa.					
Iowa School for the Deaf	Council Bluffs	—	Henry W. Rothert, Superintendent	Trustees	
Kansas.					
Institution for Education of Deaf and Dumb	Olathe	1861	A. A. Stewart, Superintendent	Trustees	Morton Albaugh, Kingman.
Kentucky.					
Institution for Education of Deaf-mutes	Danville	1823	John E. Ray, A.M., Superintendent	Commissioners	S. V. Rowland, Danville.
Louisiana.					
Institution for Education of Deaf and Dumb	Baton Rouge	1852	John Jastremski	Trustees	J. Jastremski, Baton Rouge.
Maryland.					
Maryland School for the Deaf	Frederick	1867	Charles W. Eby, Principal	Visitors	Henry C. Naill, Baltimore.
Maryland School for Colored Blind and Deaf	Baltimore	1872	F. D. Morrison, Superintendent	Directors	T. J. C. Williams, Baltimore.
Massachusetts.					
Horace Mann School	Boston	—	Miss Sarah Fuller, Principal		
Clarke Institution for Deaf-mutes	Northampton	1868	Caroline A. Yale, Principal	Corporators	
Michigan.					
Michigan School for the Deaf	Flint	1854	F. D. Clarke	Trustees	C. S. Brown, Flint.
Minnesota.					
Minnesota School for the Deaf	Faribault	1863	Prof. J. L. Noyes	Directors	R. A. Mott.

STATISTICS OF STATE INSTITUTIONS FOR THE DEAF AND DUMB.

Name of Institution.	Location.	Capacity.	No. Inmates Present.		Report for Year ending	Expense of Maintenance.			Average No. Inmates Present.	Estimated Value of Property.
			Dec. 31, '93.	Dec. 31, '94.		Gross.	Net.	Per Inmate.		
Alabama.										
Alabama Institute for the Deaf	Talladega	125	95	117	Sept 30, 1894	$45,735	$43,416			
School for Negro Deaf-mutes and Blind	Talladega	—	45	54						
Arkansas.										
Arkansas Deaf and Mute Institute	Little Rock	190	156	191	Sept. 30, 1894	32,000	32,000	$200	164	$75,000
California.										
Institution for Deaf and Blind	Berkeley	260	196	200	June 30, 1894	55,419	54,908	275	200	475,000
Colorado.										
School for the Deaf and the Blind	Colorado Springs	200	120	110	Nov. 30, 1894	43,228	—	265	125	241,832
Connecticut.										
American School at Hartford for the Deaf	Hartford	200	148	157	Mar. 31, 1894	—	—	—	147	250,000
District of Columbia.										
Columbia Institution for the Deaf and Dumb	Washington	—	92 [d]	— [a]	June 30, 1894	67,795	67,192	—	— [b]	700,000
Florida.										
Florida Blind and Deaf-mute Institute	St. Augustine	84	46	50	June 30, 1894	8,039	—	164	41	26,000
Georgia.										
Georgia School for the Deaf	Cave Spring	200	112	124	Sept. 30, 1894	188	18,855	169	112	75,000
Illinois.										
Ill. Institution for Education of Deaf and Dumb	Jacksonville	500	475	493	June 30, 1894	94,916	82,630	174	475	467,600
Indiana.										
Institution for Education of Deaf and Dumb	Indianapolis	300	261 [c]	286 [c]	Oct. 31, 1894	65,037	63,662	233	273	
Iowa.										
Iowa School for the Deaf [a]	Council Bluffs									
Kansas.										
Institution for Education of Deaf and Dumb	Olathe	250	165	230	June 30, 1894	38,121	38,121	169	225	206,000
Kentucky.										
Institution for Education of Deaf-mutes	Danville	250	185	227	Oct. 31, 1894	40,112	40,112	226	185	150,000
Louisiana.										
Institution for Education of Deaf and Dumb	Baton Rouge	140	75	81	Mar. 31, 1894	14,000	13,000	165	79	305,000
Maryland.										
Maryland School for the Deaf	Frederick	200	88	91	Sept. 30, 1894	26,770	25,571	281	91	260,000
Maryland School for Colored Blind and Deaf	Baltimore	75	41	46	June 30, 1894	8,480	8,480	212	40	37,600
Massachusetts.										
Horace Mann School [a]	Boston									
Clarke Institution for Deaf-mutes	Northampton	150	132	143	Aug. 31, 1894	42,299	36,071	—	141	
Michigan.										
Michigan School for the Deaf	Flint	360	294 [d]	325 [d]	June 30, 1894	62,885	52,885	155	279	494,225
Minnesota.										
Minnesota School for the Deaf	Faribault	250	222	234	July 31, 1894	46,511	43,494	199	219	312,365

[a] No report. [b] 153 pupils under instruction during the year. [c] At October 31. [d] At June 30.

DIRECTORY OF STATE INSTITUTIONS FOR THE DEAF AND DUMB, *Continued.*

Name of Institution.	Location.	Established.	Name and Title of Superintendent.	Title of Managing Board.	Secretary of Board.
Mississippi.					
Institution for Education of Deaf and Dumb	Jackson	1863	J. R. Dobyns	Trustees	R. L. Saunders.
Missouri.					
School for the Deaf and Dumb	Fulton	1851	James N. Tate, A.M.	Managers	Jas. E. Watson, Fulton.
Montana.					
School for Deaf, Blind, and Feeble-minded	Boulder	1893	Prof. J. A. Tillinghast	Trustees	W. S. Hooper, Boulder.
Nebraska.					
Nebraska Institute for the Deaf and Dumb	Omaha	1869	J. A. Gillespie, Superintendent	Bd. Pub. Lands, etc.	Joel A. Piper, Lincoln.
New Jersey.					
New Jersey School for Deaf-mutes	Trenton	1883	Weston Jenkins, Principal	State Bd. Educa...	Hon. A. B. Poland, Trenton.
New Mexico.					
New Mexico Institute for the Deaf and Blind	Santa Fé	1885	Lars M. Larson, Superintendent	Com. State Officers	The Hon. Attorney-General.
New York.					
Institution for the Instruction of Deaf and Dumb	New York	1817	Enoch Henry Currier, M.A., Principal	Directors	Avery T. Brown, New York City.
Le Couteulx St. Mary's Institution for Improved Instruction of Deaf-mutes	Buffalo	1853	Sister Mary Anne Burke, Principal	Trustees	S. M. Isidore Gernon, Buffalo.
Inst. for Improved Instruction of Deaf-mutes	New York	1867	D. Greene, Principal	Trustees	
St. Joseph's Institute for Improved Instruction of Deaf-mutes	Fordham	1878	Ernestine Nardin, Principal	Trustees	
Central New York Institution for Deaf-mutes	Rome	—	Edward B. Nelson, Principal	Trustees	
Western New York Institution for Deaf-mutes	Rochester	—	Z. F. Westervelt, Superintendent	Trustees	
Northern New York Institution for Deaf-mutes	Malone	1885	Henry C. Rider	Trustees	M. S. Parmelee.
Albany Home School for Oral Instr'n of Deaf [a]	Albany				
North Carolina.					
North Carolina Inst. for Deaf, Dumb, and Blind	Raleigh	—	W. J. Young, Principal	Trustees	
North Carolina School for the Deaf and Dumb	Morganton	1894	E. M. K. Goodwin, Superintendent	Trustees	
North Dakota.					
School for the Deaf of North Dakota	Devil's Lake	—	A. R. Spear		
Ohio.					
Institution for the Education of Deaf and Dumb	Columbus	1827	W. S. Eagleson, Superintendent	Trustees	
Oregon.					
School for the Education of the Deaf	Salem	1870	Rev. P. S. Knight, Ph.D	Board of Regents	
Pennsylvania.					
Pennsylvania Institution for the Deaf and Dumb	Philadelphia	—	A. L. E. Crouter, A.M., Principal		
W. Penn. Inst. for Instruction of Deaf and Dumb	Edgewood Park	1876	William N. Burt, Principal	Trustees	John B. Jackson, Pittsburg.
Pennsylvania Oral School for the Deaf	Scranton	1885	Miss Mary B. C. Brown, Principal	Directors	Henry Belin, Jr., Scranton.
Home for Training in Speech of Deaf Children	Bala	—	Mary S. Garrett		

[a] No report.

STATISTICS OF STATE INSTITUTIONS FOR THE DEAF AND DUMB, *Continued.*

Name of Institution.	Location.	Capacity.	No. Inmates Present.		Report for Year ending	Expense of Maintenance.			Average No. Inmates Present.	Estimated Value of Property.
			Dec. 31, '93.	Dec. 31, '94.		Gross.	Net.	Per Inmate.		
Mississippi.										
Institution for Education of Deaf and Dumb	Jackson	—	81	88	Dec. 31, 1894	—	—	—	90	$75,000
Missouri.										
School for the Deaf and Dumb	Fulton	350	—	303	Dec. 31, 1894	$65,000 [a]	—	—	287	350,549
Montana.										
School for Deaf, Blind, and Feeble-minded	Boulder	12	9	13	Nov. 30, 1894	2,932	$2,932	$266	11	1,175
Nebraska.										
Nebraska Institute for the Deaf and Dumb	Omaha	150	135	144	June 30, 1894	28,012	28,012	206	136	95,000
New Jersey.										
New Jersey School for Deaf-mutes	Trenton	130	—	126	Oct. 31, 1894 [e]	—	—	—	118	140,000
New Mexico.										
New Mexico Institute for the Deaf and Blind	Santa Fé	30	16	24	Mar. 4, 1894	3,382	3,382	—	24	6,000
New York.										
Institution for the Instruction of Deaf and Dumb	New York	400	344	374	Sept. 30, 1894	97,982	97,283	—	353	
Le Couteulx St. Mary's Institution for Improved Instruction of Deaf-mutes	Buffalo	150	130	132	Sept. 30, 1894	28,475	27,779	237	120	
Inst. for Improved Instruction of Deaf-mutes	New York	200	190 [g]	200 [g]						
St. Joseph's Institute for Improved Instruction of Deaf-mutes	Fordham [i]	—	325 [g]	319 [g]	Sept. 30, 1894	68,920 [b]	—	—	— [i]	
Central New York Institution for Deaf-mutes	Rome	200	132 [g]	132 [g]	Sept. 30, 1894	39,689	39,659	301	130	
Western New York Institution for Deaf-mutes	Rochester	180	160 [g]	165 [g]	Sept. 30, 1894	26,000 [a]				
Northern New York Institution for Deaf-mutes	Malone	—	87 [g]	76 [g]	Sept. 30, 1894	31,842	31,453	—	— [d]	
Albany Home School for Oral Instruct'n of Deaf [c]	Albany	—	12 [g]	16 [g]	Sept. 30, 1894					
North Carolina.										
North Carolina Inst. for Deaf, Dumb, and Blind	Raleigh	225	—	197	Nov. 30, 1894	40,000	—	163	—	75,000
North Carolina School for the Deaf and Dumb	Morganton	250	—	104 [h]	—	17,850	—	175	102	
North Dakota.										
School for the Deaf of North Dakota [k]	Devil's Lake									
Ohio.										
Institution for the Education of Deaf and Dumb	Columbus	400	383 [f]	375 [f]	Nov. 15, 1894	89,043	85,205	227	373	
Oregon.										
School for the Education of Deaf-mutes	Salem	—	—	—	Dec. 31, 1894	10,000 [b]	10,000 [b]	200 [b]	50 [b]	
Pennsylvania.										
Pennsylvania Institution for the Deaf and Dumb	Philadelphia	500	460	480	Sept. 30, 1894	128,927	—	280	459	1,065,000
W. Penn. Inst. for Instruction of Deaf and Dumb	Edgewood Park	225	189	202	Sept. 30, 1894	46,831	45,598	240	190	335,762
Pennsylvania Oral School for the Deaf	Scranton	100	—	—	June 15, 1894	11,661	—	—	— [j]	
Home for Training in Speech of Deaf Children [c]	Bala									

[a] Estimated. [b] Partly estimated. [c] No report. [d] 97 under instruction during year. [e] Fiscal year changed. [f] At November 15.
[g] At September 30 [h] School opened Oct. 2, 1894, with 104 children. [i] 375 pupils during year at 3 schools, located at Fordham, Brooklyn, and Westchester.
[j] 52 pupils during year. [k] The superintendent says: "This is a school. . . . We don't want to be recorded in your association."

DIRECTORY OF STATE INSTITUTIONS FOR THE DEAF AND DUMB, *Concluded.*

Name of Institution.	Location.	Established.	Name and Title of Superintendent.	Title of Managing Board.	Secretary of Board.
South Carolina.					
Institution for Education of Deaf and Blind	Cedar Springs	1849	N. F. Walker, Superintendent	Commissioners	N. F. Walker, Cedar Springs.
South Dakota.					
South Dakota School for Deaf-mutes	Sioux Falls	—	James Simpson, Superintendent	State Bd. Charities	
Tennessee.					
Tennessee Deaf and Dumb School	Knoxville	1845	Thomas L. Moses	Trustees	Thos. L. Moses, Knoxville.
Texas.					
Texas Deaf and Dumb Asylum	Austin	1857	A. T. Rose	Trustees	A. T. Rose, *ex officio.*
Institute for Deaf, Dumb, and Blind	Austin	—	W. H. Holland, Superintendent	Trustees	
Utah.					
Utah School for the Deaf	Salt Lake City	1884	Frank W. Metcalf, B.D., Superintendent.	Board of Regents.	Frank Pierce, Salt Lake City.
Virginia.					
Virginia Institution for Deaf, Dumb, and Blind.	Staunton	—	Thomas S. Doyle, Principal		
West Virginia.					
West Virginia Schools for the Deaf and the Blind	Romney	1870	C. H. Hill, Principal	Board of Regents.	J. J. Cornwell, Romney.
Washington.					
Washington School for Defective Youth	Vancouver	1887	J. Watson, Director.	Trustees	
Wisconsin.					
Wisconsin School for the Deaf	Delavan	—	John W. Swiler, Superintendent	State Bd. Control.	David S. Comly, Madison.
Canadian Institutions.					
Institution for the Deaf and Dumb	Belleville, Ont	1870	Robert Mathison, M.A	Inspec. of Institut's	
Manitoba Deaf and Dumb Institution	Winnipeg, Man	1888	D. W. McDermid	Dept. Pub. Works	Hon. J. W. Sifton.

STATISTICS OF STATE INSTITUTIONS FOR THE DEAF AND DUMB, *Concluded.*

Name of Institution.	Location.	Capacity.	No. Inmates Present.		Report for Year ending	Expense of Maintenance.			Average No. Inmates Present.	Estimated Value of Property.
			Dec. 31,'93.	Dec. 31,'94.		Gross.	Net.	Per Inmate.		
South Carolina.										
Institution for Education of Deaf and Blind	Cedar Spring	170	—	—	Oct. 31, 1894	$17,766	$17,766	$138	128	$60,000
South Dakota.										
South Dakota School for Deaf-mutes	Sioux Falls	50	—	—	June 30, 1894	13,893	13,893	295	47	
Tennessee.										
Tennessee Deaf and Dumb School	Knoxville	200	—	191	Dec. 31, 1894	27,926	27,826	155	180	170,000
Texas.										
Texas Deaf and Dumb Asylum	Austin	275	227	237	Feb. 28, 1895	38,111	38,111	173	220	220,000
Institute for Deaf, Dumb, and Blind [a]	Austin									
Utah.										
Utah School for the Deaf	Salt Lake City	75	48	52	June 30, 1894	7,500	7,500	156	48	105,000
Virginia.										
Virginia Institution for Deaf, Dumb, and Blind [a]	Staunton									
West Virginia.										
West Virginia Schools for the Deaf and the Blind	Romney	200	132	165	Sept. 30, 1894	27,333	24,945	193	129	90,000
Washington.										
Washington School for Defective Youth	Vancouver	—	89	113	May 31, 1894 [b]	57,112 [b]	—	—	—[c]	133,250
Wisconsin.										
Wisconsin School for the Deaf	Delavan	225	186	202	Sept. 30, 1894	38,387	38,387	210	183	146,967
Canadian Institutions.										
Institution for the Deaf and Dumb	Belleville, Ont.	250	257	255	Sept. 30, 1894	45,130	45,130	176	256	237,050
Manitoba Deaf and Dumb Institution	Winnipeg, Man.	40	39	43	1894	11,600	11,600	290	40	40,542

[a] No report. [b] Biennial period. [c] At May, 1894, deaf, 53; blind, 10; feeble-minded, 43.

DIRECTORY OF STATE INSTITUTIONS FOR THE BLIND.

Name of Institution.	Location.	Established.	Name and Title of Superintendent.	Title of Managing Board.	Secretary of Board.
Alabama.					
Alabama Academy for the Blind	Talladega	1860	Carleton Mitchell, Resident Supt.		
Arkansas.					
Arkansas School for the Blind	Little Rock	—	W. E. Ferguson	Trustees	M. Kavanaugh, Little Rock.
California.					
Institution for the Deaf and Blind [a]	Berkeley	1860			
Industrial Home for Adult Blind	Oakland	1885	Joseph Sanders, Superintendent	Directors	John Ames.
Colorado.					
Colorado School for the Deaf and the Blind [a]	Colorado Springs	1874			
Florida.					
Florida Blind and Deaf-mute Institute [a]	St. Augustine				
Georgia.					
Georgia Academy for the Blind [b]	Macon	—	W. D. Williams		
Illinois.					
Illinois Institution for the Blind	Jacksonville	—	William F. Short, D.D.	Trustees	Geo. E. Doying, Jacksonville.
Indiana.					
Indiana Institution for the Blind	Indianapolis	1847	M. H. Glascock	Directors	James L. Allen, Covington.
Iowa.					
Iowa College for the Blind	Vinton	1852	T. F. M'Cune, Principal	Trustees	J. A. Brown, Vinton.
Industrial Home for Adult Blind [b]	Knoxville	—	M. G. Gebhardt, Superintendent		
Kansas.					
Institution for Education of the Blind	Kansas City	1863	Rev. W. G. Todd	Trustees	—— Clark, Junction City.
Kentucky.					
Institution for Education of the Blind	Louisville	1842	B. B. Huntoon	Board of Visitors	B. B. Huntoon.
Louisiana.					
Institution for Education of the Blind	Baton Rouge	—	W. H. N. Magruder, Principal		
Maryland.					
Maryland School for the Blind	Baltimore	1853	Frederick D. Morrison, Superintendent	Directors	John T. Morris, Baltimore.
Maryland School for Colored Blind and Deaf [a]	Baltimore				
Massachusetts.					
Perkins Inst. and Mass. School for the Blind	South Boston	—	M. Anagnos, Director	Trustees	M. Anagnos.
Michigan.					
Michigan School for the Blind	Lansing	1854	E. P. Church	Board of Control	Hon. F. S. Wheat.
Minnesota.					
Minnesota School for the Blind	Faribault	1863	James J. Dow, Superintendent	Directors	Hon. R. A. Mott, Faribault.
Mississippi.					
Institute for the Blind of Mississippi	Jackson	1848	Peter Fairly, M.D.	Trustees	H. H. Hines, Jackson.
Missouri.					
Missouri School for the Blind	St. Louis	1851	John T. Sibley	Managers	Dr. M. H. Post, St. Louis.

[a] See Institutions for the Deaf. [b] No report.

STATISTICS OF STATE INSTITUTIONS FOR THE BLIND.

Name of Institution.	Location.	Capacity.	No. Inmates Present.		Report for Year ending	Expense of Maintenance.			Average No. Inmates Present.	Estimated Value of Property.
			Dec. 31, '93.	Dec. 31, '94.		Gross.	Net.	Per Inmate.		
Alabama.										
Alabama Academy for the Blind	Talladega	70	65	66	—	—	—	—	63	
Arkansas.										
Arkansas School for the Blind	Little Rock	250	130	135	June 30, 1894	$8,051	$8,051	$50 c	160 c	$190,000
California.										
Institution for Deaf and Blind [a]	Berkeley									
Industrial Home for Adult Blind	Oakland	100	84 b	92 b	June 30, 1894	21,564	—	192	112	
Colorado.										
Colorado School for the Deaf and the Blind [a]	Colorado Springs									
Florida.										
Florida Blind and Deaf-mute Institute [a]	St. Augustine									
Georgia.										
Georgia Academy for the Blind [d]	Macon									
Illinois.										
Illinois Institution for the Blind	Jacksonville	325	262	250	June 30, 1894	52,630	—	210	250	254,383
Indiana.										
Indiana Institution for the Blind	Indianapolis	175	138	113	Oct. 31, 1894	33,133	30,134	236	125	545,374
Iowa.										
Iowa College for the Blind	Vinton	175	160	174	Dec. 31, 1894	34,636	33,490	209	160	320,000
Industrial Home for Adult Blind [d]	Knoxville									
Kansas.										
Institution for Education of the Blind	Kansas City	100	81	86	June 30, 1894	16,606	16,606	204	82	100,000
Kentucky.										
Institution for Education of the Blind	Louisville	140	124	130	Oct. 31, 1894	27,312	27,312	230	120	160,000
Louisiana.										
Institution for Education of the Blind [d]	Baton Rouge	65								
Maryland.										
Maryland School for the Blind	Baltimore	120	—	95	June 30, 1894	31,972	22,646	260	87	
Maryland School for Colored Blind and Deaf [a]	Baltimore									
Massachusetts.										
Perkins Inst. and Mass. School for the Blind	South Boston									
Michigan.										
Michigan School for the Blind	Lansing	100	61 b	66 b	June 30, 1894	23,049	23,049	384 c	60	198,591
Minnesota.										
Minnesota School for the Blind	Faribault	60	57	60	July 31, 1894	16,321	15,219	278	55	80,562
Mississippi.										
Institute for the Blind of Mississippi	Jackson	100	39	37	January, 1894	7,000	7,000	200	35	75,400
Missouri.										
Missouri School for the Blind	St. Louis	125	107	110	Dec. 31, 1894	29,744	29,744	275 c	108 c	160,000

[a] See Institutions for the Deaf. [b] At June 30, 1894. [c] Partly estimated. [d] No report.

DIRECTORY OF STATE INSTITUTIONS FOR THE BLIND, *Concluded.*

Name of Institution.	Location.	Established.	Name and Title of Superintendent.	Title of Managing Board.	Secretary of Board.
Nebraska.					
Nebraska Institution for the Blind	Nebraska City	1875	Prof. Neil Johnson	Trustees	William Ebright, Nebraska City.
New York.					
New York Institution for the Blind	New York City	1831	William B. Wait, Superintendent	Managers	
New York State School for the Blind	Batavia	1867	Gardner Fuller, A.M.	Managers	L. C. McIntyre, Batavia.
North Carolina.					
Institution for the Deaf, Dumb, and Blind	Raleigh	—	W. J. Young, Principal		
Ohio.					
Institution for Education of the Blind	Columbus	1837	S. S. Burrows, M.D., Superintendent	Trustees	George W. Hayes.
Working Home for the Blind	Iberia	—	H. G. Palmer, Superintendent		
Oregon.					
Oregon Institute for the Blind	Salem	1872	E. S. Bollinger, Superintendent	Trustees	Superintendent of Public Instruction.
Pennsylvania.					
Institution for Instruction of the Blind	Philadelphia	1833	Edward E. Allen, Principal	Managers	J. S. Price, Philadelphia.
Western Pennsylvania Institution for the Blind	Pittsburg	1887	H. B. Jacobs, Superintendent		
Penna. Working Home for Blind Men [b]	Philadelphia				
Penna. Industrial Home for Blind Women [b]	Philadelphia				
South Carolina.					
Institution for Education of Deaf and Blind [a]	Cedar Spring				
Tennessee.					
Tennessee School for the Blind	Nashville	1844	David Lipscomb, Jr	Trustees	Major T. P. Weakly.
Texas.					
Institution for Education of the Blind	Austin	—	Dr. Becton, Superintendent		
Institution for Blind (colored)	Austin	—	W. H. Holland, Superintendent		
Virginia.					
Virginia Institution for Deaf, Dumb, and Blind [a]	Staunton				
Washington.					
School for Defective Youth [a]					
West Virginia.					
W. Virginia Schools for the Deaf and the Blind [a]	Romney				
Wisconsin.					
Wisconsin School for the Blind	Janesville	1849	H. F. Bliss, Supt. and Steward	Board of Control	D. S. Comly, Madison
Canadian Institution.					
Institution for Education of the Blind	Brantford, Ont.	1872	Alfred H. Dymond, Principal	Prov'l Government	T. F. Chamberlain.

[a] See Institutions for the Deaf.

[b] No report.

STATISTICS OF STATE INSTITUTIONS FOR THE BLIND, *Concluded.*

Name of Institution.	Location.	Capacity.	No. Inmates Present.		Report for Year ending	Expense of Maintenance.			Average No. Inmates Present.	Estimated Value of Property.
			Dec. 31,'93.	Dec. 31,'94.		Gross.	Net.	Per Inmate.		
Nebraska.										
Nebraska Institution for the Blind	Nebraska City	—	96	100	Mar. 31, 1895	$49,300	—	$500 [e]	82	$76,000
New York.										
New York Institution for the Blind	New York	—	198 [d]	197 [d]	Sept. 30, 1894	63,650	—	315	202	
New York State School for the Blind	Batavia	100	139	149	Sept. 30, 1894	44,409	$44,050	295	126	401,509
North Carolina.										
Institution for the Deaf, Dumb, and Blind [a]	Raleigh									
Ohio.										
Institution for Education of the Blind	Columbus	—	249 [c]	220 [c]	Nov. 15, 1894	55,970	52,105	211	242	
Working Home for the Blind	Iberia	—	31 [c]	34 [c]	Nov. 15, 1894	15,918	7,754	228	34	
Oregon.										
Oregon Institute for the Blind	Salem	40	20	20	Dec. 31, 1894	6,000	6,000	300	18	33,000
Pennsylvania.										
Institution for Instruction of the Blind	Philadelphia	200	163	164	Sept. 30, 1894	62,444	62,220	387	161	187,806
Western Pennsylvania Institution for the Blind.	Pittsburg	80	—	50 [e]	April 30, 1895	15,086	—	—	50 [e]	
Penna. Working Home for Blind Men	Philadelphia	—	—	152 [b]	Sept. 30, 1893	—	—	183	163	
Penna. Industrial Home for Blind Women [b]	Philadelphia									
South Carolina.										
Institution for Education of Deaf and Blind [a]										
Tennessee.										
Tennessee School for the Blind	Nashville	125	105	118	Dec. 19, 1894	21,500	21,500	210	102	110,000
Texas.										
Institution for Education of the Blind [b]	Austin									
Institution for Blind (colored) [b]	Austin									
Virginia.										
Virginia Institution for Deaf, Dumb, and Blind [a]	Staunton									
Washington.										
School for Defective Youth [a]	Vancouver									
West Virginia.										
W. Virginia Schools for the Deaf and the Blind [a]	Romney									
Wisconsin.										
Wisconsin School for the Blind	Janesville	90	108	103	Sept. 30, 1894	28,187	27,905	259	109	195,500
Canadian Institution.										
Institution for Education of the Blind	Brantford, Ont.	140	132	132	Sept. 30, 1894	35,344	35,344	267	132	250,000

[a] See Institutions for the Deaf. [b] No report. [c] At Nov. 15, 1894. [d] At September 30. [e] Partly estimated.

DIRECTORY OF STATE INSTITUTIONS FOR THE FEEBLE-MINDED.

Name of Institution.	Location.	Established.	Name and Title of Superintendent.	Title of Managing Board.	Secretary of Board.
California.					
Home for Care & Train. of Feeble-mind'd Child'n	Eldridge	1885	A. Edgar Osborne, M.D., Ph.D., Supt.	Trustees	Dr. A. E. Osborne, Eldridge.
Connecticut.					
Connecticut School for Imbeciles	Lakeville	1858	G. H. Knight, M.D., Superintendent	Trustees	Superintendent.
Illinois.					
Illinois Asylum for Feeble-minded Children	Lincoln	1865	Ambrose M. Miller, M.D.	Trustees	Superintendent.
Indiana.					
Indiana School for Feeble-minded Youth	Fort Wayne	1878	Alexander Johnson, Superintendent	Trustees	Mrs. J. H. Bass, Fort Wayne.
Iowa.					
Iowa Institution for Feeble-minded Children	Glenwood	1876	Dr. F. M. Powell.	Trustees	Dr. F. M. Powell, Glenwood.
Kansas.					
State Asylum for Idiotic and Imbecile Youth	Winfield	1881	F. Hoyt Pilcher, Superintendent	Trustees	
Kentucky.					
Inst. for Ed. & Train. of Feeble-minded Child'n	Frankfort	1860	J. T. Berry, M.D.	Commissioners	Miss Mary Page, Frankfort.
Maryland.					
Asylum and Training School for the Feeble-minded of the State of Maryland	Owing's Mills	1888	L. G. Smart, M.D., Principal	Board of Visitors	
Massachusetts.					
School for the Feeble-minded	Waltham	1848	Walter E. Fernald, M.D	Trustees	W. W. Swan, Boston.
Michigan.					
Home for Feeble-minded and Epileptic	Lapeer	1893	Wm. A. Polglase, M.D., Superintendent.	Commission	L. A. Sherman, Port Huron.
Minnesota.					
School for the Feeble-minded	Faribault	1878	A. C. Rogers, M.D.	Directors	Hon. R. A. Mott, Faribault.
Nebraska.					
Nebraska Institution for Feeble-minded Youth	Beatrice	1885	J. T. Armstrong, M.D	Bd. Pub. Lands, etc.	Hon. J. A. Piper, Lincoln.
New Jersey.					
State Institution for Feeble-minded Women	Vineland	1888	Mary J. Dunlap, M.D., Supt. & Med. Dir.	Managers	Mrs. B. Williamson, Elizabeth.
Home for Ed. and Care of Feeble-minded Child'n	Vineland	1888	S. Olin Garrison, Superintendent	Directors	S. O. Garrison, Vineland.
New York.					
Syracuse State Inst. for Feeble-minded Children	Syracuse	1851	James C. Carson, M.D., Superintendent	Trustees	Mrs. A. P. Crouse, Syracuse.
State Custodial Asyl. for Feeble-minded Women	Newark	1878	Charles W. Winspear	Trustees	George O. Baker, Clyde.
Rome State Custodial Asylum	Rome	1893	John F. Fitzgerald, M.D., Superintendent		
Ohio.					
Ohio Institution for Feeble-minded Youth	Columbus	1857	G. A. Doren, M.D., Superintendent	Trustees	G. A. Doren, M.D., Columbus.
Pennsylvania.					
Penn. Training Sch. for Feeble-minded Children	Elwyn	1852	Dr. Martin W. Barr, Chief Physician	Directors	Franklin Taylor, Germantown.
W. Penn. State Inst. for the Feeble-minded [a]	Polk	1893	—	Commissioners	Norman Hall, Sharon.
Washington.					
Washington School for Defective Youth [b]	Vancouver	1886	James Watson, Director	Trustees	

[a] Not yet opened.

[b] Department for Feeble-minded, 1892.

STATISTICS OF STATE INSTITUTIONS FOR THE FEEBLE-MINDED.

Name of Institution.	Location.	Capacity.	No. Inmates Present.		Report for Year ending	Expense of Maintenance.			Average No. Inmates Present.	Estimated Value of Property.
			Dec. 31, '93.	Dec. 31, '94.		Gross.	Net.	Per Inmate.		
California.										
Home for Care & Train of Feeble-mind'd Child'n	Eldridge	425	300	326	June 30, 1894	$54,248	$54,248	$183	297	$448,507
Connecticut.										
Connecticut School for Imbeciles	Lakeville	150	138	149	Sept. 30, 1894					
Illinois.										
Illinois Asylum for Feeble-minded Children	Lincoln	550	561	588	June 30, 1894	83,046	81,402	149	546	299,853
Indiana.										
Indiana School for Feeble-minded Youth	Fort Wayne	490	452	463	Oct. 31, 1894	87,850	87,850	191	460	380,000
Iowa.										
Iowa Institution for Feeble-minded Children	Glenwood	600	466	491	Dec. 31, 1894	76,770	76,770	162	474	273,200
Kansas.										
State Asylum for Idiotic and Imbecile Youth	Winfield	150	87 [d]	97 [d]	June 30, 1894	17,688	—	140	102	
Kentucky.										
Inst. for Ed. & Train. of Feeble-minded Child'n	Frankfort	250	107	104	Dec. 31, 1894	22,000	22,000	211	104	82,000
Maryland.										
Asylum and Training School for the Feeble-minded of the State of Maryland [b]	Owing's Mills									
Massachusetts.										
School for the Feeble-minded	Waltham	408	420	423	Sept. 30, 1894	59,321	59,128	140	423	291,016
Michigan.										
Home for Feeble-minded and Epileptic [a]	Lapeer									
Minnesota.										
School for the Feeble-minded	Faribault	450	335	424	July 31, 1894	65,472	63,871	187	342	295,500
Nebraska.										
Nebraska Institution for Feeble-minded Youth	Beatrice	225	160	190	—	—	—	—	—	120,000
New Jersey.										
State Institution for Feeble-minded Women	Vineland	150	75	89	Oct. 31, 1894	17,971	17,971	225 [c]	80 [c]	
Home for Ed. and Care of Feeble-minded Child'n	Vineland	200	—	212	May 15, 1894	45,374	44,715	231 [c]	193 [c]	100,000
New York.										
Syracuse State Inst. for Feeble-minded Children	Syracuse	540	524	517	Sept. 30, 1894	93,295	92 392	175	527	463,915
State Custodial Asyl. for Feeble-minded Women	Newark	350	329	350	Sept. 30, 1894	45,512	39,370	116	338	159,466
Rome State Custodial Asylum	Rome									
Ohio.										
Institution for Feeble-minded Youth	Columbus	800	887	942	Nov. 15, 1894	133,906	123,197	138	893	690,289
Pennsylvania.										
Penn. Training School for Feeble-minded Child'n	Elwyn	975	906	945	Sept. 30, 1894	164,663	—	179	943	
W. Penn. State Inst. for the Feeble-minded	Polk									
Washington.										
Washington School for Defective Youth	Vancouver	—	—	— [e]						

[a] Not yet opened. [b] No report. [c] Estimated [d] June 30.

[e] In May, 1894, there were 43 feeble-minded inmates. See Institutions for the Deaf.

DIRECTORY OF STATE INSTITUTIONS FOR THE FEEBLE-MINDED, *Concluded.*

Name of Institution.	Location.	Established.	Name and Title of Superintendent.	Title of Managing Board.	Secretary of Board.
Wisconsin.					
Wisconsin School for Feeble-minded[a]	Chippewa Falls	1895	——	State Bd. Control.	David S. Comly, Madison.
Canada.					
Ontario Asylum for Idiots	Orillia	1876	A. H. Beaton, Medical Superintendent		
Institutions for Epileptics.					
Ohio Hospital for Epileptics	Gallipolis	1893	H. C. Rutter, Manager	Trustees	H. C. Rutter.
Craig Colony for Epileptics[a]	Sonyea, N.Y.	1893	——	Managers	

[a] Not yet opened.

DIRECTORY OF STATE INSTITUTIONS FOR DEPENDENT CHILDREN.[a]

Name of Institution.	Location.	Established.	Name and Title of Superintendent.	Title of Managing Board.	Secretary of Board.
California.[b]					
Bishop Armitage Church Orphanage	San Mateo	1887	B. F. LeWarne, Superintendent	Directors	L. Wadham, San Francisco.
District of Columbia.					
Children's Hospital	Washington	—	——	Directors	J. W. H. Lovejoy.
Church Orphanage, St. John's Parish	"	—	Sister Sara, Superintendent	Sisterhood P.E.Ch.	Frank W. Hackett.
German Orphan Asylum	"	—	——	Directors	Reinhold Springsguth.
Industrial Home School	"	—	Mrs. Kate B. Barlow, Superintendent	Board of Managers	
St. Ann's Infant Asylum	"	1863	Sister Agnes, Superior in Charge	Sisters of Charity	
St. Joseph's Asylum	"	1855	Sister Euphrasia, Superior	Sisters of Charity	
St. Rose's Industrial School	"	1872	Sister Clara, President	Sisters of Charity	
Washington Hospital for Foundlings	"	1887	Miss E. K. Kraemer, Matron	Directors	Louise M. Smithe.
Illinois.					
Illinois Soldiers' Orphans' Home	Normal	1869	Charles E. Bassett	Trustees	Frank C. Bassett, Normal.
Indiana.					
Soldiers' and Sailors' Orphans' Home	Knightstown	1867	A. H. Graham, Superintendent	Trustees	Julia S. Conklin, Westfield.

[a] It is proposed to publish a complete Directory of Institutions for Dependent Children in the United States in the Proceedings of the Conference of 1896.

[b] About 20 institutions for children in California are supported by State appropriations.

STATISTICS OF STATE INSTITUTIONS FOR THE FEEBLE-MINDED, *Concluded.*

Name of Institution.	Location.	Capacity.	No. Inmates Present.		Report for Year ending	Expense of Maintenance.			Average No. Inmates Present.	Estimated Value of Property.
			Dec. 31,'93.	Dec. 31,'94		Gross.	Net.	Per Inmate.		
Wisconsin.										
Wisconsin School for Feeble-minded [a]	Chippewa Falls...									
Canada.										
Ontario Asylum for Idiots	Orillia	600	501	557	Sept. 30, 1894	$56,917	—	$119	523	$470,000
Institutions for Epileptics.										
Ohio Hospital for Epileptics	Gallipolis	650	78	337	Nov 15, 1894	43,766	$43,693	150	290	376,341
Craig Colony for Epileptics [a]	Sonyea, N.Y.									

[a] Not yet opened.

STATISTICS OF STATE INSTITUTIONS FOR DEPENDENT CHILDREN.

Name of Institution.	Location.	Capacity.	No. Inmates Present.		Report for Year ending	Expense of Maintenance.			Average No. Inmates Present.	Estimated Value of Property.
			Dec. 31,'93.	Dec. 31,'94		Gross.	Net.	Per Inmate.		
California. [b]										
Bishop Armitage Church Orphanage	San Mateo	—	156	165	June 30, 1894	$15,670	—	—	—	$40,000
District of Columbia.										
Children's Hospital	Washington	92	70	73	June 30, 1894	19,194	$17,876	$255	70	
Church Orphanage, St. John's Parish	"	—	—	95 [a]	June 30, 1894	—	—	—	95	50,000
German Orphan Asylum	"	—	—	45	June 30, 1894	—	—	36	50	70,000
Industrial Home School	"	—	75	70	June 30, 1894	—	—	—	76	
St. Ann's Infant Asylum	"	—	—	138	June 30, 1894	17,442	17,442	96	135	
St. Joseph's Asylum	"	—	—	101	June 30, 1894	7,827	—	—	115	
St. Rose's Industrial School	"	—	72	70	June 30, 1894	13,954	13,000	41	75	
Washington Hospital for Foundings	"	—	20	25	June 30, 1894	—	—	—	33	
Illinois.										
Illinois Soldiers' Orphans' Home	Normal	450	396	447	June 30, 1894	48,498	46,418	123	374	240,492
Indiana.										
Indiana Soldiers' and Sailors' Orphans' Home	Knightstown	650	603	641	Oct. 31, 1894	100,000	—	156	630	250,000

[a] No report.

[b] About 20 institutions in California for children are partly supported by State appropriations.

DIRECTORY OF STATE INSTITUTIONS FOR DEPENDENT CHILDREN, *Concluded.*

Name of Institution.	Location.	Established.	Name and Title of Superintendent.	Title of Managing Board.	Secretary of Board.
Iowa.					
Iowa Soldiers' Orphans' Home and Home for Indigent Children	Davenport	1863	J. H. Lukens, Superintendent	Trustees	Mrs. M. J. Ketcham, Mt. Pleasant.
Kansas.					
Soldiers' Orphans' Home	Atchison	1887	C. E. Faulkner, Superintendent	Trustees	Morton Albaugh Kingman.
Maine.					
Military and Naval Orphan Asy'um [a]	Bath				
Maryland. [c]					
Baltimore Orphan Asylum [a]	Baltimore	1846	Mrs. A. M. Powell, Superintendent	Managers	
Hebrew Orphan Asylum	"	1872	Rabbi Freudenthal	Directors	
Home of the Friendless [a]	"	1855	Miss Norris, Matron	Managers	
Manual Labor School for Indigent Boys [a]	"	1845	——	Directors	
St. Mary's Female Orphan Asylum [a]	"	—	——	Sisters of Charity	
St. Vincent's Infant Asylum [a]	"	1856	——	Sisters of Charity	
Massachusetts.					
Hospital Cottages for Children	Baldwinsville	1881	Everett Flood, M.D.	Trustees	Francis Leland, Otter River.
Michigan.					
State Public School	Coldwater	1871	A. N. Woodruff, Superintendent	Board of Control	B. S. Spofford, Coldwater.
Minnesota.					
Michigan State Public School	Owatonna	1885	Prof. Galen A. Merrill, Superintendent	Board of Control	
Montana.					
Home for Orphans, Foundlings, & Des. Children	Twin Bridges	1892	Rev. George Comfort, Superintendent	Trustees	John R. Comfort, Twin Bridges.
Nevada.					
State Orphans' Home [a]	Carson City	—	Robert Grimmon, Superintendent		
New York.					
Thomas Asylum for Orphan and Destitute Indian Children	Versailles				
North Carolina.					
Oxford Orphan Asylum	Oxford	1872	N. M. Lawrence, Superintendent	Directors	G. Rosenthal, Raleigh.
Colored Orphan Asylum of North Carolina	Oxford	1886	Rev. R. Shepard	Directors	Rev. M. C. Ransome, Oxford.
Ohio.					
Soldiers' and Sailors' Orphans' Home	Xenia	1869	Gen. Charles L. Young, Superintendent	Trustees	Col. E. C. Dawes, Cincinnati.
Pennsylvania. [b]					
Rhode Island.					
State Home and School	Providence	1884	R. B. Risk, Superintendent	Board of Control	William T. Crandell, Providence.
Texas.					
State Orphan Asylum	Corsicana	—	W. A. Wortham, Superintendent		
Wisconsin.					
State Public School	Sparta	1884	F. L. Sanborn	Board of Control	D. S. Comly, Madison.

[a] No report. [b] About 12 institutions provide for children partly supported by State. [c] Private institutions partly supported by State appropriation.

STATISTICS OF STATE INSTITUTIONS FOR DEPENDENT CHILDREN, *Concluded.*

Name of Institution.	Location.	Capacity.	No. Inmates Present.		Report for Year ending	Expense of Maintenance.			Average No. Inmates Present.	Estimated Value of Property.
			Dec. 31,'93.	Dec. 31,'94.		Gross.	Net.	Per Inmate.		
Iowa.										
Iowa Soldiers' Orphans' Home and Home for Indigent Children	Davenport	472	417	435	Dec. 31, 1894	$53,588	$53,588	$126	426	$160,000
Kansas.										
Soldiers' Orphans' Home	Atchison	135	136	129	June 30, 1894	19,046	19,046	144	132	65,000
Maine.										
Military and Naval Orphan Asylum [a]	Bath									
Maryland. [c]										
Baltimore Orphan Asylum [a]	Baltimore									
Hebrew Orphan Asylum	"	150	70	65	April, 1894	13,000	—	202	—	75,000
Home of the Friendless [a]	"									
Manual Labor School for Indigent Boys [a]	"									
St. Mary's Female Orphan Asylum [a]	"									
St. Vincent's Infant Asylum [a]	"									
Massachusetts.										
Hospital Cottages for Children	Baldwinsville	150	100	112	Sept. 30, 1894	22,000				
Michigan.										
Michigan State Public School	Coldwater	250	235	216	June 30, 1894	33,336	33,336	152	220	229,254
Minnesota,										
State Public School	Owatonna	200	179	182	July 31, 1894	29,349	29,203	173	168	182,043
Montana.										
Home for Orphans, Foundlings, & Des. Children	Twin Bridges	60	—	22	Dec., 1894	5,000	—	—	—	19,325
Nevada.										
State Orphans' Home [a]	Carson City	75	—	86 [e]						
New York.										
Thomas Asylum for Orphan and Destitute Indian Children [a]	Versailles	100	107 [b]	101 [b]	Sept. 30, 1894	27,518	12,977	—		69,693
North Carolina.										
Oxford Orphan Asylum	Oxford	210	230	192	Dec. 31, 1894	20,891	18,138	88	205	45,000
Colored Orphan Asylum of North Carolina	Oxford	71	54	67	Dec. 31, 1894	2,437	2,437	36	67	6,500
Ohio.										
Soldiers' and Sailors' Orphans' Home	Xenia	1,075	910	910	Nov. 15, 1894	144,970	142,321	157	909	750,000
Pennsylvania. [d]										
Rhode Island.										
State Home and School	Providence	135	124	126	Dec. 31, 1894	19,033	19,033	152	125	
Texas.										
State Orphan Asylum	Corsicana	130	—	213 [e]						
Wisconsin.										
State Public School	Sparta	—	222	267	Sept. 20, 1894	41,372	—	—	233	

[a] No report. [b] At September 30. [c] Private institutions partly supported by State appropriations.
[d] About 12 institutions provide for children partly supported by State appropriations. [e] At June 30, 1895.

DIRECTORY OF STATE INDUSTRIAL AND REFORM SCHOOLS.

Name of Institution.	Location.	Established.	Name and Title of Superintendent.	Title of Managing Board.	Secretary of Board.
Arizona.					
Territorial Reform School	Flagstaff	1895			
California.					
Whittier State School	Whittier	1889	John E. Coffin, Superintendent	Trustees	
Preston School of Industry	Ione	1889	E. Carl Bank, Superintendent	Trustees	H. R. Bernard, Ione.
Colorado.					
State Industrial School	Golden	1881	G. A. Garard, Superintendent	Board of Control	Mrs. E. G. Curtis, Cañon City.
Connecticut.					
State Reform School	Meriden	1852	Rev. Samuel Thatcher	Trustees	C. H. S. Davis.
Industrial School for Girls	Middletown	1867	William G. Fairbank, Superintendent	Directors	C. E. Bacon, Middletown.
Delaware.					
Ferris Industrial School[a]	Wilmington	1885	H. E. Haines	—	Wilmer Palmer.
District of Columbia.					
Reform School	Washington	1870	G. A. Shallenberger, Superintendent	Board of Visitors	
Reform School for Girls	Washington	1893	Jessie Aldrich, Superintendent		
Illinois.					
State Reformatory	Pontiac	—	Major R. W. McClaughry	Managers	The Superintendent.
Indiana.					
Reform School for Boys	Plainfield	1868	T. J. Charlton, Superintendent	Board of Control	
Reform School for Girls (and Women)	Indianapolis	1873	Sarah F. Keely	Managers	Anna Dunlop, Indianapolis.
Iowa.					
Industrial School (Boys)	Eldora	1868	B. J. Miles	Trustees	
Industrial School (Girls)	Mitchellville	1873	C. C. Corey	Trustees	Hon. J. M. Gilchrist, Marshalltown
Kansas.					
State Reform School	Topeka	1881	Rev. W. H. Howell	Trustees	G. A. Clark, Junction City.
State Industrial School for Girls	Beloit	1889	Tamsel F. Hahn, Superintendent	Trustees	George A. Clark, Junction City.
Kentucky.					
Industrial School of Reform	Louisville	1865	P. Caldwell, Superintendent	Managers	
Louisiana.					
Boys' House of Refuge	New Orleans	—	W. C. Staunton	Commissioners	Samuel J. Hart, New Orleans.
Maine.					
State Reform School	So. Portland	1850	Joseph R. Farrington	Trustees	Gen. J. J. Perry, Portland
Industrial School for Girls	Hallowell	1875	E. Rowell, Superintendent and Treasurer.	Managers	Charles E. Nash, Augusta.
Maryland.					
House of Refuge for Boys[b]	Baltimore	1849	Robert J. Kirkwood, Superintendent	Managers	Maurice Lanphanner.
Female House of Refuge[b]	"	1867	William K. Bibb, Superintendent	Directors	Thomas W. Brundige.
St. Mary's Industrial School[b]	"	1868	Brother Dominic, Superintendent	Trustees	B. G. Harris.
House of Reformation for Colored Boys[b]	Cheltenham	1873			
Industrial Home for Colored Girls[b]	Melvale	1883			

[a] Private institution. [b] Partly supported by State appropriation.

STATISTICS OF STATE INDUSTRIAL AND REFORM SCHOOLS.

Name of Institution.	Location.	Capacity.	No. Inmates Present.		Report for Year ending	Expense of Maintenance.			Average No. Inmates Present.	Estimated Value of Property.
			Dec. 31,'93.	Dec. 31,'94		Gross.	Net.	Per Inmate.		
Arizona.										
Territorial Reform School[a]	Flagstaff									
California.										
Whittier State School	Whittier	—	412	408[b]	June 30, 1894	$133,010	$115,781	$271	407	$466,499
Preston School of Industry	Ione	150	—	100	June 30, 1894	20,600	20,527	—[c]	—	248,000
Colorado.										
State Industrial School	Golden	160	146	125	Nov. 30, 1894	33,000	33,000	220	150	73,975
Connecticut.										
State Reform School	Meriden	500	441	465	Sept. 30, 1894	72,979	68,237	147	460	
Industrial School for Girls	Middletown	246	226	242	Sept. 30, 1892	43,561	43,321	188[d]	230[d]	
Delaware.										
Ferris Industrial School[e]	Wilmington	100	48	58	Dec. 31, 1894	8,545	8,476	146	58	44,267
District of Columbia.										
Reform School	Washington	220	204[b]	201[b]	June 30, 1894	44,700	41,667	210	193	
Reform School for Girls	Washington	35	12[d]	35[d]	June 30, 1894	10,000[d]				
Illinois.										
State Reformatory (*see State Prisons*)	Pontiac									
Indiana.										
Reform School for Boys	Plainfield	600	501	572	Oct. 31, 1894	65,000	64,554	127	513	165,000
Reform School for Girls (and Women)	Indianapolis	220	198[g]	202[h]	Oct. 31, 1894	45,000	43,000	210	204[j]	145,000
Iowa.										
Industrial School (Boys)[a]	Eldora	550								
Industrial School (Girls)	Mitchellville	150	138	150	Dec. 31, 1894	18,399	18,399	129	142	75,000
Kansas.										
State Reform School	Topeka	225	205	211[b]	June 30, 1894	27,886	—	129	216	200,000
State Industrial School for Girls	Beloit	100	92	98	June 30, 1894	13,890	13,890	139	100	84,000
Kentucky.										
Industrial School of Reform[f]	Louisville	—	314	—	Aug. 31, 1893	36,314	33,575	105	320	
Louisiana.										
Boys' House of Refuge[f]	New Orleans	140	89	85	Dec. 31, 1894	9,012	9,012	94	96	4,000
Maine.										
State Reform School	So. Portland	150	126	140	Nov. 30, 1894	23,163	19,276	146	132	100,000
Industrial School for Girls	Hallowell	60	62	75	Nov. 30, 1894	7,850	7,850	120	65	39,000
Maryland.										
House of Refuge for Boys[i]	Baltimore	400	192	209	Nov. 30, 1894	34 511	32,073	168	191	285,000
Female House of Refuge[i]	"	100	67	75	Dec. 31, 1894	10,073	—	144[d]	70[d]	
St. Mary's Industrial School[i]	"	600	402	480	Nov. 30, 1894	51,077	45,527	114[d]	400[d]	
House of Reformation for Colored Boys[i a]	Cheltenham	250								
Industrial Home for Colored Girls[i a]	Melvale									

[a] No report. [b] At June 30. [c] Opened for reception of inmates July 1, 1894. [d] Estimated. [e] Private institution. [f] Maintained by city.
[g] Includes 150 girls, 48 women. [h] Includes 161 girls, 41 women. [i] Partly supported by State appropriation. [j] Includes women.

DIRECTORY OF STATE INDUSTRIAL AND REFORM SCHOOLS, *Continued.*

Name of Institution.	Location.	Established.	Name and Title of Superintendent.	Title of Managing Board.	Secretary of Board.
Massachusetts.					
Lyman School for Boys	Westboro	1848	Theodore F. Chapin, A.M.	Trustees	E. G. Evans.
State Industrial School for Girls	Lancaster	1856	Mrs. Luann L. Brackett	Trustees	Mrs. E. G. Evans, Boston.
State Primary School	Monson	1866	Walter A. Wheeler, Superintendent	Trustees	Mrs. E. G. Evans.
Michigan.					
Industrial School for Boys	Lansing	1857	J. E. St. John, Superintendent	Trustees	William McPherson, Jr., Howell.
Industrial Home for Girls	Adrian	1877	Mrs. Lucy M. Sickels, Superintendent	Guardians	Hon. G. Spaulding, Monroe.
Minnesota.					
Minnesota State Training School	Redwing	1867	J. W. Brown, Superintendent	Managers	Miss Amilie Willard.
Missouri.					
Missouri Reform School for Boys	Boonville	1889	L. D. Drake, Superintendent	Managers	W. N. Baker.
State Industrial Home for Girls	Chillicothe	1887	Emma M. Gilbert, Superintendent	Board of Managers	Emma M. Gilbert, Chillicothe.
Montana.					
Montana State Reform School	Miles City	1893	A. J. Hylton, Director	Board of Trustees.	H. B. Wiley, Miles City.
Nebraska.					
Industrial School for Boys	Kearney	1879	John T. Mallalieu	Bd. Pub. Lands, etc	
Girls' Industrial School	Geneva	1892	James D. McKelvey	Bd. Pub. Lands, etc.	J. A. Piper, Lincoln.
New Hampshire.					
State Industrial School	Manchester	1855	John C. Ray	Trustees	Hon. J. C. Linehan, Pennacook.
New Jersey.					
State Reform School	Jamesburg	1865	Ira Otterson	Trustees	Jas. M. Parsons, New Brunswick.
State Industrial School for Girls	Trenton	1871	Mrs. Mary A. McFadden, Prin. & Matron	Trustees	Lewis Parker, Trenton.
New York.					
House of Refuge (Randall's Island) [a]	New York City	1825	Franklin H. Briggs	Managers	William Bradford, New York City.
State Industrial School	Rochester	1846	Vincent M. Masten	Managers	John Desmond, Rochester.
Ohio.					
Boys' Industrial School	Lancaster	1856	D. M. Barrett, Superintendent	Trustees	C. D. Hilles, Lancaster.
Girls' Industrial Home	Delaware	1869	Capt. A. W. Stiles	Trustees	Capt. J. W. Watkins, Delaware.
Oregon.					
Oregon State Reform School	Salem	1891	R. J. Hendricks, Superintendent	Board of Regents	G. M. Irwin, Salem.
Pennsylvania.					
House of Refuge	Glen Mills	1827	F. H. Nibecker, Superintendent	Managers	R. A. Lewis, Philadelphia.
Pennsylvania Reform School	Morganza	1854	J. A. Quay	Managers	Jos. Albree, Allegheny.
Rhode Island.					
Sockanosset School for Boys	Cranston	—	W. W. Murray, Superintendent	Bd. State Charities	Charles H. Peckham.
Oaklawn School for Girls	Cranston	1882	Mrs. R. S. Butterworth, Superintendent	Bd. State Charities	Charles H. Peckham.
South Dakota.					
State Reform School	Plankinton	1888	C. W. Ainsworth, Superintendent	Bd. State Charities	Zina Richey, Yankton.
Tennessee.					
Tennessee Industrial School	Nashville	1886	W. C. Kilvington, Superintendent	Directors	P. P. Pickard, Waverly.

[a] Partly supported by State appropriation.

STATISTICS OF STATE INDUSTRIAL AND REFORM SCHOOLS, *Continued.*

Name of Institution.	Location.	Capacity.	No. Inmates Present.		Report for Year ending	Expense of Maintenance.			Average No. Inmates Present.	Estimated Value of Property.
			Dec. 31, '93.	Dec. 31, '94.		Gross.	Net.	Per Inmate.		
Massachusetts.										
Lyman School for Boys	Westboro	224	238	237	Dec., 1894	$57,596	$56,431	$246	229	$188,071
State Industrial School for Girls	Lancaster	165	112	124	Sept. 30, 1894	21,617	21,617	185	117	91,574
State Primary School	Monson	400	269	95	Sept. 30, 1894	47,850	47,286	216	219	193,486
Michigan.										
Industrial School for Boys	Lansing	500	475	530	June 30, 1894	61,172	54,642	109	500	260,812
Industrial Home for Girls	Adrian	235	232	243	June 30, 1894	37,289	34,273	145	224	168,868
Minnesota.										
Minnesota State Training School	Redwing	355	317	347	July 31, 1894	48,772	48,057	150	320	360,534
Missouri.										
Missouri Reform School for Boys	Boonville	250	144	175	Dec. 31, 1894	26,000	26,000	148	175	90,000
State Industrial Home for Girls	Chillicothe	40	57	64	Dec. 31, 1894	8,813	8,813	144	61	40,957
Montana.										
Montana State Reform School	Miles City	60	—	39	Nov. 30, 1894	12,000	12,000	—	—	29,600
Nebraska.										
Industrial School for Boys	Kearney	225	219	218	Dec., 1894	41,000	—	183	223	160,000
Girls' Industrial School	Geneva	80	79	80	Nov. 30, 1894	15,894	15,894	209	76	53,000
New Hampshire.										
State Industrial School	Manchester	—	101 [c]	131 [c]	Sept. 30, 1894	19,086	18,980	164 [a]	116 [a]	
New Jersey.										
State Reform School	Jamesburg	400	376	396	Oct. 31, 1894	67 083	50,537	136	371	242,000
State Industrial School for Girls	Trenton	150	103	111	Oct. 31, 1894	15,726	15,726	150	105	93,256
New York.										
House of Refuge (Randall's Island) [b]	New York City	800	577	625	Sept 30, 1894	125,000 [a]	—	—	571	575,944
State Industrial School	Rochester	1,025	789	770	Oct. 31, 1894	160,000	—	—	744	581,075
Ohio.										
Boys' Industrial School	Lancaster	650	700	753	Nov. 15, 1894	95,224	92,088	130	711	
Girls' Industrial Home	Delaware	350	347	343	Nov. 15, 1894	36,461	35,786	105	340	448,178
Oregon.										
Oregon State Reform School	Salem	150	70	107	Dec. 31, 1894	18,000 [a]	18,000 [a]	200 [a]	90	225,000
Pennsylvania.										
House of Refuge	Glen Mills	700	691	695	Dec. 31, 1894	127,413	115,774	161	717	750,000
Pennsylvania Reform School	Morganza	450	505	606	Sept. 30, 1894	86,663	80,942	148	548	
Rhode Island.										
Sockanosset School for Boys	Cranston	260	250	242	Dec. 31, 1894	48,502	48,056	194	247	
Oaklawn School for Girls	Cranston	45	20	31	Dec. 31, 1894	4,242	4,242	161	26	
South Dakota.										
State Reform School	Plankinton	75	81	97	June 30, 1894	10,000	—	180 [a]	76	50,000
Tennessee.										
Tennessee Industrial School	Nashville	450	366	442	Dec. 19, 1894	41,031	41,031	97	425	177,207

[a] Estimated. [b] Partly supported by State appropriation. [c] September 30.

DIRECTORY OF STATE INDUSTRIAL AND REFORM SCHOOLS, *Concluded.*

Name of Institution.	Location.	Established.	Name and Title of Superintendent.	Title of Managing Board.	Secretary of Board.
Texas.					
House of Correction and Reformatory	Gatesville	1889	Capt. J. F. McGuire	Trustees	C. A. Rogers, Gatesville.
Utah.					
Reform School	Ogden	1889	Isaac D. Haines, Superintendent	Trustees	Henry H. Rolapp.
Vermont.					
Vermont Industrial School	Vergennes	1865	S. A. Andrews	Trustees	N. W. Fisk, Vergennes.
Virginia.					
Industrial School of Prison Associat'n of Virginia	Glen Allen	1890	William C. Sampson, Superintendent	Prison Asso. of Va.	Rev. W. B. Williams, Richmond
West Virginia.					
Reform School for Boys	Pruntytown	1889	D. W. Shaw, Superintendent	Directors	J. Hop Woods, Philippi.
Washington.					
State Reform School	Chehalis	1891	Thomas P. Westendorf, Director	Trustees	Henry Dunn, Chehalis.
Wisconsin.					
Industrial School for Boys	Waukeska	1860	J. G. Hart, Superintendent.	Board of Control	D. S. Comly, Madison.
Wis. Industrial School for Girls and Young Boys	Milwaukee[a]	1875	Sarah C. Pierce, Superintendent	Managers	Mrs. J. L. Kaine.

[a] Private institution.

STATISTICS OF STATE INDUSTRIAL AND REFORM SCHOOLS, *Concluded.*

Name of Institution.	Location.	Capacity.	No. Inmates Present.		Report for Year ending	Expense of Maintenance.			Average No. Inmates Present.	Estimated Value of Property.
			Dec. 31, '93.	Dec. 31, '94.		Gross.	Net.	Per Inmate.		
Texas.										
House of Correction and Reformatory	Gatesville	150	—	251	Dec. 31, 1894	$34,000	$34,000	$142	240	$75,000
Utah.										
Reform School	Ogden	200	—	32	Dec. 31, 1894	16,424	16,424	—	30	
Vermont.										
Vermont Industrial School	Vergennes	150	99	102	Dec. 31, 1894	15,485	14,854	160	93	90,000
Virginia.										
Industrial School of Prison Assoc'n of Virginia	Glen Allen	110	81	112	Dec. 31, 1894	10,131	10,131	101	100	15,750
West Virginia.										
Reform School for Boys	Pruntytown	125	110	105	Sept. 30, 1894	12,000	—	109	110	43,000
Washington.										
State Reform School	Chehalis	150	130	150	Sept. 30, 1894	17,513	17,513	122	143	64,000
Wisconsin.										
Industrial School for Boys	Waukesha	400	352	394	Sept. 30, 1894	59,774	55,329	160	345	269,880
Industrial School for Girls and Young Boys[a]	Milwaukee	180	211	226	Sept. 30, 1894	28,923	28,153	146	193	78,775

[a] Private institution.

DIRECTORY OF STATE PRISONS AND STATE REFORMATORY OR INTERMEDIATE PRISONS.

Name of Institution.	Location.	Established.	Name and Title of Superintendent.	Title of Managing Board.	Secretary of Board.
Alabama.					
State Penitentiary	Wetumpka	—	T. C. Dorson, Warden		
Arizona.					
Territorial Prison	Yuma	—	Thomas Gates, Superintendent		
Arkansas.					
Arkansas Penitentiary	Little Rock	—	E. T. McConnell		
California.					
California State Prison	Folsom	1880	Charles Aull, Warden	Directors	B. F. Smith, Represa.
California State Prison	San Quentin	1850	William E. Hale, Warden	Directors	Joseph V. Ellis, San Quentin.
Colorado.					
State Penitentiary	Cañon City	1871	Frank A. McLister, Warden	Commissioners	F. A. Reynolds, Cañon City.
State Reformatory	Buena Vista	1889	John A. McDonald, Warden	Commissioners	J. D. Chamberlain, Pueblo.
Connecticut.					
State Prison	Wethersfield	—	J. L. Woodbridge, Warden	Directors	
District of Columbia. [a]					
Florida. [a]					
Georgia. [a]					
Idaho.					
State Penitentiary	Boisé	—	J. P. Campbell, Warden	Commissioners	
Illinois.					
State Penitentiary	Joliet	1857	R. L. Allen, Warden	Commissioners	H. A. Sanger, Joliet.
State Penitentiary	Chester	—	James D. Baker, Warden	Commissioners	W. V. Choisser.
State Reformatory	Pontiac	1893	Major R. W. McClaughry	Managers	R. W. McClaughry.
Indiana.					
State Prison (South)	Jeffersonville	1822	A. T. Hert, Warden	Directors	E. W. Pickhardt.
State Prison (North)	Michigan City	1859	Charley Harley, Warden	Directors	H. A. Barnhart, Rochester.
Woman's Prison (see Reform Schools)					
Iowa.					
State Penitentiary	Fort Madison	1839	N. N. Jones, Warden		
State Penitentiary	Anamosa	1871	P. W. Madden, Warden		
Kansas.					
State Penitentiary	Lansing	1864	J. B. Lynch, Warden	Directors	
Kansas Industrial Reformatory	Hutchinson	[b]	J. C. O. Morse	Directors	
Kentucky.					
Kentucky Penitentiary	Frankfort	1801	Henry George, Warden	Commissioners	L. C. Norman, Frankfort.
Branch Penitentiary	Eddyville	1890	Capt. C. L. Curry, Warden	Commissioners	L. C. Norman.
Louisiana.					
State Penitentiary	Baton Rouge	1834	Col. James, Lessee		
Maine.					
State Prison	Thomaston		S. H. Allen, Warden	Inspectors	
Maryland.					
Maryland Penitentiary	Baltimore	—	John F. Weyler, Warden	Directors	

[a] No State prison. Prisoners from District of Columbia sent to Albany County Penitentiary, New York. In States of Florida and Georgia convicts are leased out.

[b] Opened in August, 1895.

STATISTICS OF STATE PRISONS AND STATE REFORMATORY OR INTERMEDIATE PRISONS.

Name of Institution.	Location.	Capacity.	No. Inmates Present.		Report for Year ending	Expense of Maintenance.			Average No. Inmates Present.	Estimated Value of Property.
			Dec. 31,'93.	Dec. 31,'94.		Gross.	Net.	Per Inmate.		
Alabama.										
State Penitentiary [a]	Wetumpka	—								
Arizona.										
Territorial Prison [a]	Yuma	210								
Arkansas.										
Arkansas State Penitentiary	Little Rock	500	875	889 [d]	Dec. 31, 1894	$117,948	$94,354	$111 [f]	848 [f]	
California.										
California State Prison	Folsom	1,000	685	797	June 30, 1895	109,990	104 656	132	791	$781,043
California State Prison	San Quentin	1,400	1,305	1,258	June 30, 1894	172,592	144,183	110	1,307	1,058,000
Colorado.										
State Penitentiary	Cañon City	655	567	636	Nov. 30, 1894	89,946	73,534	122	601	699,400
State Reformatory	Buena Vista	85	91	70	Nov. 30, 1894	22,015	22,015	319	69	170,000
Connecticut.										
State Prison	Wethersfield	400	337	394	Sept. 30, 1894	78,937	38,478	109 [g]	351 [g]	400,224
District of Columbia. [k]										
Florida. [k]										
Georgia. [k]										
Idaho.										
State Penitentiary	Boisé	82	98	106	Nov. 30, 1894	30,357	30,357	297	102	
Illinois.										
State Penitentiary	Joliet	900	1,411	1,570	Sept. 30, 1894	217,108	217,108	150	1,448	1,991,389
State Penitentiary	Chester	1,500	613 [c]	654 [c]	Sept. 30, 1894	163,385	—	213 [g]	658	1,100,301
State Reformatory	Pontiac	848	607	812	Dec. 31, 1894	115,487	115,487	161	719	
Indiana.										
State Prison, South	Jeffersonville	698	665	789	Oct. 31, 1894	75,000	—	105	708	
State Prison, North	Michigan City	760	841 [d]	896	Oct. 31, 1894	100,000	—	— [i]	902	
Woman's Prison (see Reform Schools)										
Iowa.										
State Penitentiary	Fort Madison	370	436	460	June 30, 1895 [j]	150,936	62,193	72	429 [j]	
State Penitentiary [a]	Anamosa	—	373 [b]							
Kansas.										
State Penitentiary	Lansing	2,100	831 [b]	920 [b]	June 30, 1894	139,477	61,391	73	845	
Kansas Industrial Reformatory	Hutchinson	150	— [h]	—	—	—	—	—	—	260,000
Kentucky.										
Kentucky Penitentiary	Frankfort	1,194	1,101 [c]	1,156 [c]	Nov. 30, 1894	89,349	78,023	80	1,115	
Branch Penitentiary	Eddyville	414	—	550	—	—	—	—	500	
Louisiana.										
State Penitentiary	Baton Rouge	420	1,126	1,204	Dec. 31, 1894	— [a]	—	—	1,100	
Maine.										
State Prison	Thomaston	225	135 [e]	159 [e]	Nov. 30, 1894	16,727	7,558	52	146	
Maryland.										
Maryland Penitentiary	Baltimore	800	636 [e]	656 [e]	Nov. 30, 1894	71,528	— [i]	—	650	

[a] No report. [b] June 30. [c] September 30. [d] October 31. [e] November 30. [f] Estimated. [g] Partly estimated. [h] Opened August, 1895, with 40 convicts.
[i] Earnings exceed expenditures. [j] For biennial period.
[k] No State prison. Prisoners from District of Columbia are sent to Albany County Penitentiary, New York. In States of Florida and Georgia convicts are leased out.

DIRECTORY OF STATE PRISONS AND STATE REFORMATORY OR INTERMEDIATE PRISONS, *Continued.*

Name of Institution.	Location.	Established.	Name and Title of Superintendent.	Title of Managing Board.	Secretary of Board.
Massachusetts.					
State Prison	Charlestown	1805	Benjamin F. Bridges, Warden	Commissioners	Fred G. Pettigrove.
Massachusetts Reformatory	Concord	1884	Joseph F. Scott, Superintendent	Commissioners	Fred G. Pettigrove.
Reformatory Prison for Women	Sherborn	1877	Mrs. Ellen C. Johnson, Superintendent	Commissioners	Fred G. Pettigrove.
Michigan.					
State Prison	Jackson	1839	William Chamberlain, Warden	Board of Control	George R. Stone.
State House of Correction and Reformatory	Ionia	1877	Otis Fuller, Warden	Board of Control	F. M. Douglas.
State House of Correction and Branch Prison	Marquette	1889	J. R. Van Evera, Warden	Board of Control	George W. Freeman.
Minnesota.					
State Prison	Stillwater	1851	Henry Wolfer, Warden	Managers	The Warden.
State Reformatory	St. Cloud	1887	William E. Lee, Superintendent	Managers	H. S. Griswold.
Mississippi.					
State Penitentiary	Jackson	1838	M. L. Jenkins, Warden	Board of Control	T. B. Stone, Jackson.
Missouri.					
State Penitentiary	Jefferson City	1836	James L. Pace, Warden	Inspectors	J. M. Seibert.
Montana.					
Montana State Prison	Deer Lodge	1871	Conley and McTague, Contractors	Commissioners	L. Rotwitt.
Eastern State Prison [b]	Billings	1893			
Nebraska.					
State Penitentiary	Lincoln	—	A. D. Beemer, Warden	Bd. Pub. Lands, etc.	Joel A. Piper, Lincoln.
Nevada.					
State Prison	Carson City	—	L. O. Henderson, Warden		
New Hampshire.					
State Prison	Concord	—	George W. Colbath, Warden		
New Jersey.					
State Prison	Trenton	—	John H. Patterson, Keeper		
State Reformatory [b]	Rahway				
New Mexico.					
New Mexico Penitentiary	Santa Fé	—	E. H. Bergmann, Superintendent	Commissioners	W. E. Dame, Santa Fé.
New York.					
Sing Sing Prison	Sing Sing	1825	O. V. Sage, Agent and Warden	Supt. State Prisons.	
Auburn Prison	Auburn	1816	James C. Stout, Agent and Warden	" " "	
Clinton Prison	Dannemora	1845	Walter N. Thayer, Agent and Warden	" " "	
State Prison for Women	Auburn	1816	Annie M. Welshe, Matron		
New York State Reformatory	Elmira	1876	Z. R. Brockway	Managers	B. L. Swartwood.
Eastern New York Reformatory [a]	Ellensville				
House of Refuge for Women	Hudson	—	Mrs. Sarah V. Coon	Managers	
Western House of Refuge for Women	Albion	1890	Mrs. Mary K. Boyd	Managers	Mrs. Sarah J. Fee.
Reformatory for Women [b]	Bedford				
North Carolina.					
State Penitentiary	Raleigh	1868	A. Leager, Superintendent		

[a] Under construction. [b] Not yet opened.

STATISTICS OF STATE PRISONS AND STATE REFORMATORY OR INTERMEDIATE PRISONS, *Continued.*

Name of Institution.	Location.	Capacity.	No. Inmates Present. Dec. 31, '93.	No. Inmates Present. Dec. 31, '94.	Report for Year ending	Expense of Maintenance. Gross.	Net.	Per Inmate.	Average No. Inmates Present.	Estimated Value of Property.
Massachusetts.										
State Prison	Charlestown	825	666	671	Sept. 30, 1894	$280,403	$123,667	$185	667	
Massachusetts Reformatory	Concord	1,000	1,054	1,062	Sept. 30, 1894	204,300	135,587	131	1,035	
Reformatory Prison for Women	Sherborn	350	280	304	Sept. 30, 1894	55,368	38,790	134	289	$438,611
Michigan.										
State Prison	Jackson	832	836	869	June 30, 1894	130,946	25,569	31	834	891,288
State House of Correction and Reformatory	Ionia	624	344 b	471 b	June 30, 1894	142,865	80,303	205	392	393,166
State House of Correction and Branch Prison	Marquette	312	118	148	June 30, 1894	45,262	25,062	198	126	266,688
Minnesota.										
State Prison	Stillwater	615	484 j	543 j	July 31, 1894	106,587	59,588	127	469	983,679
State Reformatory	St. Cloud	128	146	125	July 31, 1894	48,822	42,850	313	137	220,364
Mississippi.										
State Penitentiary	Jackson	—	767 e	—	Sept. 30, 1893	22,021				
Missouri.										
State Penitentiary a	Jefferson City	1,800								
Montana.										
Montana State Prison	Deer Lodge	400	316	301	Nov. 30, 1894	48,642	—	155	313	110,000
Eastern State Prison k	Billings									
Nebraska.										
State Penitentiary	Lincoln	400	317 e	351 e	Nov. 30, 1894 i	47,000	—	146	321 i	
Nevada.										
State Prison	Carson City	150	86	77	Dec. 31, 1894	30,032	28,832 g	320 g	89	
New Hampshire.										
State Prison	Concord	250	173 e	172 e	Nov. 30, 1894	21,347	10,735	63	170 f	
New Jersey.										
State Prison	Trenton	785	947 d	968 h	Oct. 31, 1893	165,068	104,643	112 g	935	
State Reformatory	Rahway									
New Mexico.										
New Mexico Penitentiary	Santa Fé	200	123 e	142 e	—	—	—	—	136	
New York.										
Sing Sing Prison	Sing Sing	1,400	1,309	1,352	Sept. 30, 1894	150,814	—	—	1,329	
Auburn Prison	Auburn	—	1,261	1,251	Sept. 30, 1894	157,264	—	—	1,249	
Clinton Prison	Dannemora	1,206	1,020	1,105	Sept. 30, 1894	157,191	—	—	1,046	
State Prison for Women	Auburn	—	117	120	Sept. 30, 1894	27,026	—	—	118	1,634,142
New York State Reformatory	Elmira	1,250	1,161	1,396	Sept. 30, 1894	233,777	201,667	150	1,339	
Eastern New York Reformatory k	Ellensville									
House of Refuge for Women	Hudson	300	326 c	316 c	Sept. 30, 1894	64,406	—	198	324	287,380
Western House of Refuge for Women	Albion	150	—	57	Sept. 30, 1894	12,144	—	—	—	145,053
Reformatory for Women k	Bedford									
North Carolina.										
State Penitentiary a	Raleigh	—	1,182	—	Dec. 31, 1893	163,061	54,351			

a No report. b June 30. c September 30. d Oct. 31, 1892. e November 30. f Estimated. g Partly estimated. h Oct. 31, 1893.
i For biennial period. j Includes, respectively, 97 and 69 United States prisoners from other States. k Not yet opened.

DIRECTORY OF STATE PRISONS AND STATE REFORMATORY OR INTERMEDIATE PRISONS, *Concluded.*

Name of Institution.	Location.	Established.	Name and Title of Superintendent.	Title of Managing Board.	Secretary of Board.
North Dakota.					
North Dakota Penitentiary	Bismarck	1883	Edward H. Wilson, Warden	Trustees	The Warden.
Ohio.					
State Penitentiary	Columbus	1815	C. C. James, Warden		
State Reformatory[a]	Mansfield				
Oregon.					
State Penitentiary	Salem	—	George S. Downing		
Pennsylvania.					
Eastern State Penitentiary	Philadelphia	—	Michael J. Cassidy	Inspectors	Henry Z. Ziegler.
Western Penitentiary of Pennsylvania	Allegheny	1826	Edward S. Wright, Warden	Inspectors	James R. Reed.
Industrial Reformatory	Huntingdon	1889	T. B. Patton, General Superintendent	Managers	Walter C. Odiorne, Huntingdon.
Rhode Island.					
State Prison	Howard	—	Nelson Viall	State Bd. Charities	Charles H. Peckham.
State Workhouse and House of Correction	Howard				
South Carolina.					
South Carolina Penitentiary	Columbia	1866	Col. W. A. Neal, Superintendent	Directors	R. E. Burriss, Columbia.
South Dakota.					
South Dakota Penitentiary	Sioux Falls	1881	N. E. Phillips	State Bd. Charities.	Z. Richey, Yankton.
Tennessee.					
State Penitentiary	Nashville	1828	Felix G. Buchanan	Supt. of Prisons	James A. Harris.
Texas.					
Huntsville Penitentiary	Huntsville	1849	L. A. Whately, Superintendent	Commissioners	J. W. Spivey, Austin.
Rusk Penitentiary	Rusk	1849	L. A. Whately	Commissioners	J. W. Spivey, Austin.
Utah.					
Utah Penitentiary (United States Prison)	Salt Lake City	—	Nathaniel M. Brigham, U.S. Marshal		
Vermont.					
Vermont State Prison	Windsor	1808	Edwin W. Oaks, Superintendent	Directors	
Vermont House of Correction	Rutland				
Virginia.					
Virginia Penitentiary	Richmond	1793	B. W. Lynn, Superintendent	Directors	F. V. Sutton.
Washington.					
Washington State Penitentiary	Walla Walla	1886	Thomas Mosgrove, Warden	Directors	
West Virginia.					
West Virginia Penitentiary	Moundsville	—	M. Van Pelt, Warden	Directors	
Wisconsin.					
State Prison	Waupun	—	J. J Roberts, Warden	State Bd. Control	D. S. Comly.
Wyoming.					
Wyoming State Penitentiary	Laramie	1891	N. D. McDonald	State Bd. Charities	Miss Estelle Reel.
State Penitentiary[a]	Rawlins				
Canada.					
Central Prison of Ontario	Toronto	1874	James Massie, Warden	Dept. of Justice	

[a] Not yet opened.

STATISTICS OF STATE PRISONS AND STATE REFORMATORY OR INTERMEDIATE PRISONS, *Concluded.*

Name of Institution.	Location.	Capacity.	No. Inmates Present.		Report for Year ending	Expense of Maintenance.			Average No. Inmates Present.	Estimated Value of Property.
			Dec. 31, '93.	Dec. 31, '94.		Gross.	Net.	Per Inmate.		
North Dakota.										
North Dakota Penitentiary	Bismarck	160	92	82	Oct. 31, 1894	—	—	—	85	
Ohio.										
State Penitentiary	Columbus	2,100	1,756	2,020	Nov. 15, 1894	$270,905	$23,112	$15	2,016	
State Reformatory[a]	Mansfield									
Oregon.										
State Penitentiary	Salem	—	364	359	Dec. 31, 1894	42,213	27,928	78	357	
Pennsylvania.										
Eastern State Penitentiary	Philadelphia	1,530	1,248	1,411	Dec. 31, 1894	154,822	63,860	48	1,299	$2,000,000
Western Penitentiary of Pennsylvania	Allegheny	1,180	1,018	1,169	Dec. 31, 1894	174,979	122,488	116	1,053	
Industrial Reformatory	Huntingdon	516	446	547	Dec. 31, 1894	117,270	105,003	204	513	1,029,500
Rhode Island.										
State Prison	Howard	330	170	135	Dec. 31, 1894	—	—	—	154	
State Workhouse and House of Correction	Howard	300	277	276	Dec. 31, 1894	—	31,577	126	251	
South Carolina.										
South Carolina Penitentiary	Columbia	2,000	1,032	1,085	Oct. 31, 1894	103,173	39,908	61	1,042	1,000 000
South Dakota.										
South Dakota Penitentiary	Sioux Falls	150	90	128	June 30, 1894	31,600	23,700[g]	263[g]	90[g]	
Tennessee.										
State Penitentiary	Nashville	650	—	1,631						
Texas.										
Huntsville Penitentiary	Huntsville	4,250	3,575[b]	4,125[d]	Oct. 31, 1894	—	—	—	4,118	2,282 414
Rusk Penitentiary	Rusk									
Utah.										
Utah Penitentiary (United States Prison)	Salt Lake City	500	183	195	Dec. 31, 1894	39,219	—	209	187	
Vermont.										
State Prison	Windsor	170	103	149	June 30, 1894[e]	32,943[e]	6,159[e]	60[e]	104[e]	
Vermont House of Correction	Rutland	135	141	153	June 30, 1894[e]	26,686[e]	11,531[e]			
Virginia.										
Virginia Penitentiary	Richmond	1,200	1,340	1,400	Sept. 30, 1894	—	91,366	—[f]	1,368	
Washington.										
Washington State Penitentiary	Walla Walla	550	450	431	Sept. 30, 1893	73,026	65,514	147	445	
West Virginia.										
West Virginia State Penitentiary	Moundsville	455	390[c]	463[c]	Sept. 30, 1894	46,070	—	105	438	
Wisconsin.										
State Prison	Waupun	—	536	662	Sept. 30, 1894	78,995	—	130	609	
Wyoming.										
Wyoming State Penitentiary	Laramie	150	118	110						
State Penitentiary[a]	Rawlins									
Canada.										
Central Prison of Ontario	Toronto	360	406	401	Sept. 30, 1894	62,449	60,479	159	378	769,000

[a] Not yet opened. [b] Oct 31, 1892. [c] September 30. [d] October 31. [e] For biennial period. [f] Earnings exceed expenditures. [g] Partly estimated.

XVII.

Minutes and Discussions.

SECRETARY'S REPORT.

FIRST SESSION.

Friday, May 24, 1895.

The twenty-second annual meeting of the National Conference of Charities and Correction was opened on Friday, May 24, 1895, in the United Church, New Haven, Conn.

The Conference was called to order by the chairman of the Local Committee, Judge Francis Wayland, with the following words: "We are assembled to-night to welcome to this city the delegates to the twenty-second session of the National Conference of Charities and Correction, a body made up of members of charitable and correctional institutions throughout the United States and of delegates appointed by the governors of the various States. The subjects to be treated are those vitally connected with the wide field of philanthropy. They are to be treated by experts, by men of acknowledged authority in the departments which they represent; and the sessions, to which all are invited, will be of great interest.

"The welcome on the part of the city will be made by our honored mayor, A. C. Hendrick, and on the part of Yale University by President Timothy Dwight. Rev. D. M. James will offer the opening prayer."

After the opening prayer the mayor spoke a brief word of welcome. He was followed by President Dwight.

President Dwight.— *Mr. President, Ladies and Gentlemen,*— It is to us a matter of regret that the chief officers of the State are not present to welcome you within the borders of the State. But in our early history we constituted an independent colony, finally

giving up our rights and privileges in the spirit of Christian love to our neighbors to come under the sway of one government, which united the two colonies. We may feel, however, this evening that we belong to the old New Haven colony, and that his honor the mayor, who has just addressed you, is indeed not the mayor of the city, but the governor of the colony; and thus you have received a welcome within the borders of this Commonwealth, as you have received a welcome to this city of our home.

But I am reminded not only of the exaltation of his honor the mayor as centring the government in himself, but I recognize fully the significant position which I hold as representing the university. The university is a part of New Haven, but not the whole of it. If the university were to disappear, New Haven would exist. It would not be so celebrated a place perhaps as it is now. It would not be to the degree it now is, the "home of learning," as it has been called; but it would exist.

I have only the right and privilege to bid you welcome to one element in the city life, but in the name of the university I give you a cordial welcome to that part.

We give you the freedom of the university. We shall keep open doors for you to visit all our buildings as you may have leisure and inclination. We hope that you will take with you a pleasant impression, and that you will see we are all working together for the upbuilding of righteousness and peace in the land. The home of learning comes close to the home of the people, and the homes of the people are represented in the home of learning. The joy that we have in this university, as in all universities, is that we are sending forth, according to our ability and as the results of our searchings, knowledge and truth to build up the life of the great community in the nation.

We welcome you to our university because you come from all parts of the country; and our university is, perhaps, in a truer sense than any other, a national university, which has its representatives coming to it from all parts of the nation. We trust that you will find even in your brief visit and as you walk through our grounds and buildings that the spirit of the university is the spirit of love for all parts of the nation. I trust that your meetings will be exceedingly pleasant to you, and that you will carry away with you the feeling that this is a beautiful place, and that it is a hospitable place, and that it is a place in which in some measure the true theories of the life of the people are carried out. I bid you welcome to the university.

The address of the President of the Conference, Robert Treat Paine, of Boston, was then made (page 1).

Adjourned at 9.15 P.M. to a reception given at Warner Hall by the Local Committee.

SECOND SESSION.

Saturday morning, May 25.

The Conference was called to order at 9.30 A.M. by the President. Prayer was offered by Rev. Newman Smyth.

The subject for the morning was the Report of the Committee on Reports from States, H. H. Hart, chairman. Mr. Hart, in presenting the individual reports, said: "Formerly we asked State Secretaries to give us a general report and a statistical report. This year the committee has asked the four hundred State institutions of the country for statistical reports. These reports will be presented in the form of charts, which will afterward be printed in the Proceedings" (page 398).

Reports from Alaska, California, Colorado, Connecticut, and District of Columbia were then read (page 319).

Mr. A. O. CROZIER, Michigan.— We have noticed with regret the absence of our friend Mr. John Glenn, a member of the Executive Committee; and, as he is prevented from attendance by severe sickness, I move that a telegram may be sent to him, expressing our affectionate regret at his enforced absence.

This was unanimously voted.

The Report of the Committee on State Boards of Charities was made by the chairman, Mr. F. H. Wines (page 28).

A paper on Boards of Control was read by Mr. Clarence Snyder, Wisconsin (page 37).

DISCUSSION ON STATE BOARDS.

Mr. WINES.— Several questions are open for discussion. One is whether the consolidated board of trustees having charge of all the State institutions in a State can do anything for any one of those institutions which a separate local board could not do.

Another question is whether the local boards do not feel a more keen and lively personal interest in the single institutions for which they are responsible than general boards can be likely to do in the entire institutions of a particular State.

There is also a question as to the effect of the payment of salaries to the members of those boards, in influencing politicians to seek for positions on such boards as reward for past political service. I do not think to be a politician is a reproach to any man. A man who

has a thorough knowledge of politics is better qualified for the position of trustee of a State institution, all other things being equal, than without such knowledge. But the danger is that the governor, under the pressure of politicians, may be induced to place upon the Board men and women who are not qualified.

There is further a question whether the consolidated Board of Control will not be so taken up with questions of administration, including the expenditure of money, auditing accounts, appointing of employees and subordinates, as to neglect that larger outside work of social investigation and influencing the legislature in the line of preventive legislation that is done by State Boards usually, and is so essential to the welfare of the community.

Finally, there is the question whether the consolidated Boards of Control giving their entire time to the management of institutions, having to earn their salaries, do not perform functions which properly belong to the superintendents of those institutions; whether they do not weaken the authority of the superintendent, and whether they do not tend to weaken the institutions rather than benefit them.

There are only four Boards of Control in the country, so far as I know,— Wisconsin, Kansas, Rhode Island, and South Dakota. We hope to hear from the members of those boards as to the nature of their experience. There is another Board, that of Massachusetts, which has no executive functions so far as institutions are concerned, but does have so far as the State poor are concerned. So does the New York Board.

On motion of Mr. J. S. Appel it was voted that speeches in the discussion should be limited to five minutes each.

Gen. BRINKERHOFF.— I presented my views so fully last year that I do not care to speak upon this subject, but still I do want to congratulate my old friend from Wisconsin on the admirable and able manner in which he has presented his side of the question. I have never heard it better presented. Nevertheless, I must dissent from his view of the case entirely, and would like to make one or two suggestions in regard to it. For eighteen years I have been a member of a board without executive powers. For the State of Ohio a consolidated board would be physically impossible. We have eighty-eight counties, and we have seventeen State institutions. In every county there is a jail and a poorhouse. If five men attempted to visit and inspect for those institutions, how could they do it? Then, again, a Board of State Charities is for the purpose of giving unbiassed judgment of the work of those in charge of those institutions. How are they going to criticise *their own work?* On that ground I do not favor it. I admit that there is one State in which that system works well; and that is Rhode Island, which is not larger

than one of our counties, and where all the State institutions are on one farm. Compare our condition in Ohio, with eighty-eight counties! It is the business of our Board to think and study and visit the State institutions. We have a paid secretary. In large counties we have a board of six, three of whom are women, who visit the local institutions four times a year, and report to the State Board of Charities. On these local boards we have the noblest men and women in the State. There is not a man on our State Board who could afford to give his entire time and services for two thousand dollars a year. We get the ablest men, the best business men; and they are glad to give their services for nothing for the love of God and humanity. That is the kind of Board we have. Supplementing this, we have an organization of the superintendents and stewards of the State that meets four times a year, to make comparisons; and they report to us, showing their methods. They consider things in reference to their different institutions; and, when it is found that purchases can be made cheaper than they are being made in any one institution, that evil is corrected. The result has been excellent.

Rev. Dr. S. G. Smith, Minnesota.— One of the speakers has pointed out an evil in a local board of trustees that is not essential to the system; namely, that the local board is concentrated in or near the place where the institution is located, and the institution is managed in the interest of that town. There are some objections to the position that has been taken here. It has been said that the method is a method of barbarism. But all savage people have simple governments. They have somebody who comes to the front and manages the whole business. As people become more civilized, they require more complex governments, and the different powers must be more carefully balanced. This belongs to the philosophy of government, and nowhere is it more carefully manifested than in charities. Take a board of five men who can be hired for $2,000 a year, and you have only average men. Where there is a salary, political intrigue works; and $2,000 a year is a fine salary for a decayed politician. But suppose there is one strong man in it: he at once rules the other four, and you have the entire penal and charitable institutions of the State under the influence of a single individual. There you have a form of barbarism introduced into the charities of the State which is more deplorable than I can describe. Then the literature of the subject of charity and correction is so vast that no one man is able to master all that is to be known on these different branches of charity and reform. If you can have forty or fifty men, not selected because they want a $2,000 job, but men who will put their leisure into a single department, you can command the best ability and culture of the nation. Better to have such men, each studying and all discussing the different points, than to have an oligarchy with one despot and no discussion.

Mr. SNYDER.— The last speaker has set up a man of straw which does not exist. If, as he says, it is impossible to find a fit man to work for $2,000, how much of the time of one of these superior men to whom he refers, who give their time for nothing, can we get? Is there not as much politics in positions without salaries as with salary?

Rev. J. H. NUTTING, Rhode Island.— I represent a State which for twenty-five years has had the system of a board of control. I realize that our State territory is small, and that facilitates the operation of this method. Though our State might be hidden in some of the counties of Ohio, yet the people of those counties might be hidden in some of our townships. Our population, our wealth, and our intellectual ability are not so small. It is possible in our State to find men to do this work without any salary,— men of intellect, men of affairs, men who have succeeded in their own personal business, men of philanthropic impulses, men of intelligence in these matters. It is possible to get such men who are not politicians in any objectionable sense. A man ought not to be barred because he is a politician, but political methods should be barred out of our Boards of State Charities and Boards of Control. I speak from our experience. Our warden has been warden twenty-seven years. Our Board serves without emolument of any kind, except the Secretary, who receives $3,000; and, while the majority has been Republican, the Secretary during all these years has been a Democrat. I invite you to consult our reports. Though the cost of living in New England is greater than in the West, our per capita cost for the two thousand inmates of our institutions is less than that of any other State in the Union where they are properly clothed and fed. Without our system it could not be done. I would not prescribe for Ohio or Wisconsin, but for our State this is the best way; though I would not like to see our Board of Control consist of but five men. That is too few.

Mr. ALEXANDER JOHNSON, Indiana.— The greatest mission of a State Board is to educate the public. The second work is to stand between the general public and the benevolent institutions, as an independent body possessing the confidence of the public from the fact of its organization and constitution, to give a report of what it sees, not of what it does. Our idea is that, when you give a Board of State Charities executive functions, it is no longer a State Board of Charities, but it is something else. We ought to have that clearly in mind. Such a board may be necessary in Wisconsin. It may be desirable and beneficial to have a joint board of control of all the institutions, but I do not believe it would work any better with us than our present system. I admit the many errors of our present systems of boards of trustees. The delightful, theoretical board of trustees does not exist very frequently. Trustees are apt to be negligent, to be lazy, to leave everything to their superintendents, if

they have confidence in them, so that at a time of stress they are not able to know or say everything about their institution from the cellar to the garret. They are not able to say that nothing has been done about which they do not know and for which they are not responsible. They are too apt to let the responsibility rest on the superintendent, and to slip out themselves at any trying time. But, notwithstanding these weaknesses peculiar to human nature, situated as we are we do better with boards of trustees than we should with a joint board of control. I think a position on such a board would be more intensely sought after than any other position in the State, because it would control such enormous patronage; but under any system I hope the superintendents would appoint their subordinates.

Mr. C. E. FAULKNER.—I think Mr. Johnson has presented the question correctly. It is not a question as between a single board of local trustees and whether a State Board of Charities is necessary. I am willing to concede that in all States where there are local boards of trustees a State Board is an absolute necessity. Nearly twenty years ago Kansas abolished local trustees, and established a single board for all her charitable institutions. That has continued up to the present time; and, so far as I know, during that time there has never been any serious criticism. The practice in the management of business affairs is that the purchase of all supplies shall be upon a certain schedule, advertising for bids and letting contracts to the lowest bidder, thus bringing into State affairs business administration such as characterizes a great railway system. Business management goes into all the details; and I do not think there is any State in the Union that can make any comparison in economy and efficiency with Rhode Island, Wisconsin, and Kansas. I am clearly satisfied that an analysis of the cost of managing these institutions which brings the business method within the control of one board will show a lower cost, without any sacrifice of efficiency, than exists elsewhere. After nineteen years' experience Kansas will never go back to the old system of local trustees. No proposition of that kind would be entertained. All of our people are thoroughly agreed on the policy of putting the management under one board of five men. I have no doubt that would be the experience of other States of the same size. It might be impossible for a board of five to transact the business, but the Board could be made larger. Local boards will probably continue in the great States where they now exist, as the people would rebel if there were an attempt to abolish them; but it might be possible to have a central board that should consist of executive men who should purchase supplies and manage the business, and who should be supervised by the State Board of Charities. States like Missouri, which have local boards of trustees, should have a State Board.

Mrs. C. M. WALKER, Indiana.—I think institutions are established first of all for reformation. I should like to hear something back of

the subject of buying supplies. Can four or five men look properly into the discipline and observe the methods of the superintendents of all the philanthropic and reformatory institutions of a State?

Mrs. E. E. WILLIAMSON, New Jersey.— The lady who has just spoken expresses my views. We are losing sight of the fact that these boards of trustees must have an individual interest in the persons in the institutions of which they have the oversight, whereas the Boards of Control can do no more than manage the finances. We cannot run our State institutions on the plan of a great railroad, simply because the dependants are to be sent for reformation or for care. In New Jersey we have non-partisan boards. Our institutions are economically managed, and the interests of those in their care are considered. But we have to do something more than provide the bread and butter and the buildings necessary.

Mr. J. S. APPEL, Colorado.— There may be some things adapted to Wisconsin, Kansas, and Rhode Island that would not work in the other States. The last legislature of Colorado had the purpose of establishing a State Board of Control similar to the one in Wisconsin, but the plan embraced the educational institutions; and the great objection was that the question of treating the boys in the State Normal School and the question of treating the insane were so different that they would not work well together. The bill passed one House, but failed in the other. The great objection to the State Board of Control that I see is that it fails to interest the community in such work. We do our good work by proxy. It eliminates the self. If we treat our institutions as great railroad corporations are treated, corporations without souls, and put men without souls at the head of them, we can see the difficulty. But partisan politics should be kept out of the administration of charities under every system. We have enough of the spoils system on every side without having it there. Fortunately, women with us are citizens, and have the same say that the men do on all these matters; and they are interested in keeping charities and politics apart. Nothing has aided us so much in this matter as a speech made by General Brinkerhoff, which was read in the legislature of Colorado in open session.

Mr. FAULKNER.— I did not intend to compare the institutions to a railroad corporation; but I say that, in the matter of purchase of supplies, methods similar to those of a railway system should be adopted, as they bring the highest degree of economy. We cannot bring sentiment into the matter of spending dollars and cents.

Mr. JAMES E. HEG, Wisconsin.— If we protect society, we protect humanity. To do that, you must go on a business basis. That is the basis on which the institutions of Wisconsin are run. But, if you will show me a State where the insane are better cared for, I would like to see it. Show me another State where there is no child in a poorhouse! And we have no insane persons in jail in the

State. We take care of every class of delinquent and insane people; and, if we can do it in Wisconsin, why can it not be done in other States? They say it is a political board. Do not political matters enter into every board? Is there a single board that is not influenced by politics? [Several voices. Plenty, plenty.] Doesn't it enter into Illinois and Ohio? I believe you will find politics in every institution in every State. The fact is, gentlemen of State Boards of Charities, you cannot get Boards of Control and executive powers: therefore, you fight against them. Four years ago, when the Democrats obtained control in Wisconsin, they established the State Board of Control. This year the Republicans have the State, and it was a question how we should reorganize that Board. Some advocated the idea that we should reorganize the old Board of Charities and Board of Supervision. Outside of the old members of that Board there was not one man in favor of it. The papers were against the old method of having two boards. The plan of having the Board of Control was adopted by the old party, and is now carried on by the new party. Politics do not enter into the question, but it is satisfactory to the people. They are in favor of having a combined board, with added executive powers in every branch.

Rev. G. C. Maddock, New Jersey.— I do not think the contention is between States. It is as to methods which shall effect the greatest possible good in the departments of charities and correction. In New Jersey we have a Board of Control under, I think, the best system. We have a State Board of Charities which, under the statute, must visit and inspect carefully and diligently all the institutions of the State, reformatory and penal. In connection with this chief Board we have auxiliaries in every county of the State. These auxiliaries have committees who have the right to visit almshouses and jails and workhouses and other institutions, and ascertain how they are managed, how the inmates are clothed and fed and worked and sheltered in winter and made cool in summer. By this method we come to understand the character of every institution in the State, and the secretaries of these auxiliaries report annually to the State Board of Charities; and the State Board carefully examines these reports, and is competent from such examinations to supervise and correct all that is done by the auxiliaries. The auxiliaries have the time, the opportunity, and, better than all, the heart to go into an effective examination of these institutions without fee or reward. They are not influenced by any sectional interest, but are dominated by the Golden Rule.

Mrs. Alice N. Lincoln, Boston.— I cannot let the statement go unchallenged that a State Board exists to protect the community. I think there is another and a very important side to the duties of a State Board, and that is to look to the reformation and the care of the individuals under their care. Several things have been suggested

to me by this discussion, and one is the question of politics. When people are paid for this sort of work, it is much harder to get the right kind of men to take positions. We have all noted instances of that. Two-thousand-dollar men have been spoken of, but ten thousand dollars could not buy the best intellect and thought that could be given voluntarily for public charitable work. We had a concrete instance of that in the people who took charge of the World's Fair. They worked for their country, their nation and her glory; and they gave their time. Those people could not have afforded to give their time for any salary, but they gave it freely for their country. We want the best people who are willing to come forward. It ought not to be a question whether we can pay enough to secure them, but whether they are willing to give their time. We Americans, though we know a good deal, can learn from other places. In England the people are willing to give their time without pay for their charities and correction, and I do not see why we should not stand on the same basis. They consider it an honor to have to do with a charitable institution: it is not a question of politics. It is a question of getting the best men and the best methods. And, when we have got good men, we want to induce them, by all the help we can give them, to do the best work.

Mr. Philip C. Garrett.— The remarks of the chairman of this committee about politics are delusive, if not sophistical. We do not object to politicians in the sense of students of political science; but it is notorious that, where there is an emolument, where there is limited office with great responsibility, there is much greater liability of persons being appointed to these offices, not for merit, not for their fitness, but from political causes. It is because they belong to one party or another, because they have done service to one party or another. That is a great objection. But the main point as to this discussion is that the two functions of a board of control and a board of public charities are entirely different. I understand that in the case of the Board of Control of Wisconsin they exercise not only the powers of a board of trustees of seven institutions, but also the functions of a State Board of Charities, inspecting all the institutions of the State, public and private. It would seem to me that the functions to be performed by these two bodies are not only distinct, but utterly incompatible; for it is impossible for one body to properly exercise the functions of these two bodies. How can they supervise themselves? How can they inspect the institutions which they administer? How in a State with a large number of state, county, and private institutions would it be possible for a board of control to administer all of these? It never pretends to examine any except those belonging to the State. How, then, are the mass of private charities to be kept straight? How is the duty of inspection, which differs from the duty of administration as much as the duties of a lawyer differ from the duties of a judge, to be reconciled? It is very

much as if the same party were to argue a case before a judge and at the same time hear it as a judge. I think these are so incompatible with each other that where there is a board of control there should be a board of charities also, the board of control holding the position of trustees of the State institutions, the Board of State charities existing for the inspection and criticism and keeping straight the county and private institutions.

Mrs. WALKER.— I would like to know if the success of these boards of control is entirely due to boards of men or whether there are mothers and women on them who have had a share in them?

Rev. H. H. HART.— I have great admiration for the Board of Control of Wisconsin. They have done admirable work. The old Board was abolished four years ago. Within sixty days all the superintendents except one were removed. One of the most efficient members of the Board said that they had made a mistake at the beginning, and that, if they had it to do over again, they would not probably make so many removals. When the Board had acquired some experience, the Republicans came into power, and they created a new board; and the gentleman who opened this discussion is the only member who was not changed. It was a survival of the fittest. If you remember, the board of trustees in Kansas have attracted considerable public attention. The gentleman from Kansas who spoke is known as the superintendent of a State institution in Kansas. He is the only Republican office-holder to keep his place. Again a survival of the fittest. There was another Republican officer who was removed from his place; and the institution got into very great confusion under his successor; and the trustees had the courage and good sense, for which they deserve praise, to reinstate the old officer. I think these facts ought to be known, because they suggest a great difficulty in regard to these matters. When you put all the State institutions under one board, you make it possible for a political revolution to affect injuriously every one of those institutions. You make it necessary that every man should "keep himself solid" with the politicians, unless, as in the case of those who have spoken here, he can hold his position by virtue of efficiency. Under the trustee system it is impossible for such a thing to be done. In none of those States where there have been local boards has there been any such overturning in the reversal of political control.

QUESTION.— How about Illinois?

Mr. HART.— That is an exception to the rule. Out of seventeen States, that is the only one.

Miss JULIA C. LATHROP, Illinois.— I confess there has been what seems to me a note of pessimism through this discussion, which seems to take its climax in what the gentleman from Wisconsin has said as to the inevitableness of political influence. But it seems to me that the thing which a great body of this sort, which stands for education in the true administration of charity, whether preventive

or curative, has to meet is the question of political influence which is brought to bear on members of any State Board. They should be something besides so many pawns in a political game. Such Boards, whether Boards of Control or State Boards of Charities, are intended to care for dependent and criminal creatures. In too many States they have come to be part of the great political system which can be turned into votes. I do not undertake to say which system is the better policy for a State, but until we undertake to raise our voices against this injurious political influence the State Board of Charities seems to offer the least inducement to this element.

Mr. Ernest Bicknell, Indiana.— Mr. Heg did not name Indiana. We have the old system there. A Board of State Charities has charge of twelve large State institutions. Every one of these is in the control of a local board divided between the two political parties. The superintendents of our eight benevolent institutions, with one exception, are Democrats. The legislature which held session in Indiana last winter was overwhelmingly Republican. Every one of those superintendents holds his place to-day, though many spoilsmen went about deliberately to find reason for displacement in the management of the institutions; but they failed in every instance. Our institutions, every one of them, are in bi- or non-partisan control. Our local boards are made up of three members; and, of our eight benevolent institutions, in four of them two members of each board are Republican and one Democratic, and in the other four there are in each two Democrats and one Republican. None of our twelve institutions suffer from the evil which Mr. Heg thinks is inevitable.

Dr. J. W. Walk, Pennsylvania.— I am heartily in favor of a board of public charities whose functions are supervisory and inspectorial, and for the purpose of giving information to the public. I believe it is necessary for the hundreds and thousands of institutions outside of State control. Shall we have a central executive board over the State institutions or shall we have a separate trustee system? It seems to me that that is a secondary matter. I do not believe that the question whether these institutions shall be managed for the purpose of political reward is a question that depends on the method of organization. It depends on the sentiment of the State. There are States where partisanship does not enter into the central Board at all. There are other States, like Pennsylvania, where it does not enter into the boards of trustees. But there are States where politics is a factor, and where there is a trustee system as well. In Ohio one of the best superintendents of an insane hospital in the Union was removed for political reasons, and then put back again when his party came into power. There is need for improvement in New Jersey in these matters. In Pennsylvania we had a board of twelve men to manage our almshouses, and a board

of ten to manage our house of correction. That has been swept away, and a board of five men has been appointed to manage the county institutions; and that has been followed by a reduction of expenditure and improvement in discipline.

The Committee on Resolutions was announced as follows: Messrs. M. D. Follett, Clarence Snyder, and R. Gilliam.

Mrs. Anne B. Richardson.— The Massachusetts Board of Lunacy and Charity differs as much from other State Boards as its name implies. Its executive duties consist only in the care in a certain way of the minor wards of the State and the outdoor relief department. I have been a member of this Board for ten years, and I have yet to learn the political opinion of any superintendent in the State or of any member of the State Board. If I do know it, it is by accident. Massachusetts has always been strongly in favor of local boards of trustees, believing that the interests of the institutions are better served in that way than by any body of four or five men who can be paid.

Mr. Snyder.— I want to disclaim for Wisconsin any intention to start any propaganda in favor of the Wisconsin idea. We challenge comparisons in the cost and condition of any of our institutions with those of any other State. This is wholly a matter of sentiment, I believe. It is natural for a person coming from any State to think that the system prevalent there is the proper one. But the money used comes out of the pockets of the people, and it ought to be expended in the right way. While I am willing to admit that the trustee system in some States is doing good work; yet, the country over, I believe it is a vicious system. When the people really understand how the business is being done, these boards will be swept away. I was in one State that had boards of trustees; and I asked the superintendent of an institution how often they visited it, and he said but one had ever been there. He said they met once in three months to audit accounts down town in a lawyer's office. In a New York institution an investigation showed that in ten years they had paid $25,000 more for meat than was necessary.

Adjourned at 12.25 P.M.

THIRD SESSION.

Saturday night, May 25.

The third session was called to order at eight o'clock in the United Church. Prayer was offered by Rev. E. C. Lines, of New Haven. The President announced that President Seth Low, who was to have spoken, had been prevented from coming.

The subject for the evening, "Sociology in Institutions of Learning," was taken up, Professor Franklin H. Giddings, of Columbia, presiding. The first paper was by Professor Giddings, "Is the Term 'Social Classes' a Scientific Category?" (page 110). The following papers were also read: "The Statistical Study of Hereditary Criminality," by Professor E. R. L. Gould, of Chicago University (page 134); "Sociology in Schools and Colleges: Its Feasibility and Probable Results," by Professor H. H. Powers, of Smith College, Northampton, Mass. (page 122); "Science and Sentiment in Economic Policy," by Professor Arthur T. Hadley, of Yale (page 117).

A paper on "The German Inner Mission," by Dr. C. R. Henderson, of Chicago, was presented in his absence by the President, who also called attention to a book which has recently appeared on "Punishment and Reformation," by Rev. F. H. Wines.

A motion was presented by Mr. J. S. Appel, calling for immediate reprints of the President's opening address on "The Empire of Charity." Referred to the Executive Committee.

Adjourned at 10.30 P.M.

FOURTH SESSION.

Sunday morning, May 26.

The members of the Conference met in the United Church at 11 A.M.; and the Conference sermon was preached by Rev. T. T. Munger, of New Haven (page 16).

FIFTH SESSION.

Sunday night, May 26.

The Conference was called to order at 7.30 P.M. in the United Church. A quartette of singers from the Hampton (Va.) Industrial Institute sang for half an hour. Prayer was offered by Rev. S. G. Smith, D.D., of Minnesota.

The subject of the evening was "Child-saving Work," Mr. C. W. Birtwell, of Boston, chairman.

Papers were read by Professor Charles R. Richards, of Pratt Institute, Brooklyn, on "Trade Schools: Their Place in Industry, Education, and Philanthropy" (page 195) and by Mr. Walter A. Wheeler,

of Monson, Mass., on "Problems of an Institution: Scraps of Experience" (page 204). Remarks followed by Mr. Birtwell (page 208) and by Mr. Percy Alden, of Mansfield House, one of the university settlements of London.

REMARKS OF MR. PERCY ALDEN.

It gives me pleasure to show my sympathy with the work that you have done. I am reminded here of an old lady who went to another parish church, and heard the vicar preach a very touching sermon, so that nearly every one wept. The old lady, however, did not weep; and when asked afterward if she were not touched, and, if so, why she did not weep, she replied, "If you please, I lives in another parish." Though I live in another parish, I take the same interest in your work that I do in our own. The distance between us does not make any difference whatever.

In East London we have a difficult problem with which to deal. I do not think there is anything more grievous than to pass through the slums of East London, and see the prematurely old, weazened faces of children, showing that the hardships of the last generation or two have made a distinct difference in their lives. What we have got to do is to attack the child problem, and to see if we cannot alter the condition of the lives of the children and give them a better chance. The matter is almost hopeless in some directions; and I have almost begun to despair of the older ones, but we need not despair of the children. If we give them better food, better air, and a better education, we shall have some hope for the future.

Let me give you an illustration of the darkness that has fallen over London. One street there is inhabited by dockers who get about three dollars a week. The result is that they live in one room, and the children are not properly fed. They go unfed in the morning, and get no food until night. The probability is that not half the children of dockers are fed as they ought to be. I remember going into one of those houses to visit a poor woman there, and I found that she had a huge number of children. I tell this with reference to child insurance. Next door lived another woman who had had many children who had all died. The woman with the many children began to complain, saying that her neighbor had had a great many children, but they had all died, adding words that were awful and pitiful at the same time,— "I never had no graveyard luck." I want to point out here the danger of child insurance. That woman had insured every one of her children. I do not know whether you are taking up that subject in this country. The London Prudential Assurance Company has an enormous number of agents all through East London; and, though good and honest men do insure their lives, yet this child insurance is an enormous evil.

Again, to illustrate the lack of care of the children. Some one on the School Board went into a school; and the teacher said, "There is a little girl who never turns up on Monday." He went to call on the little girl, and asked how it happened that she never went to school on Monday morning. "It's like this," she replied. "Father's always drunk on Monday." That child was not fourteen. These two cases show how devoid are the fathers and mothers of any true idea of fatherhood and motherhood. That has got to be remedied, but I am afraid we cannot do it with the adults. We shall only do it as the children are properly trained.

The conditions of life are such that five children die in East London, according to the population, to one child in better parts of the city. That shows the impossibility almost of giving them better conditions where they are. For children to live in single rooms, without the sight of the green fields or trees, it is nearly impossible to grow up to be what we call clean and honest men and women.

There are two things I should like to suggest. Our educational system in England should be enlarged to embrace manual training. We do give some in the schools, but I mean after the school age. Our industrial system is probably worse than yours. The boys get through the schools at fourteen, and begin to work as soon as they can earn anything. That is not their fault nor their parents. It is the fault of the industrial system. The result is that they forget all they learned at school. I cannot see any way out of it except by passing a bill compelling every employer to see to it that they are sent to an evening school for recreation and for manual training. If that could be done, and every child who has to work by day could have recreation and manual training in the evening, it would go a good way to remedy the present evil. I find plenty of children who cannot read and write. If they ever could, they have forgotten it. The other day I was attending a mass meeting of girls,— matchmakers on a strike,— and I found that more than twenty per cent. of the girls there who had been to the public schools could not write or read, showing that their schooling had not amounted to much. Either, they had attended irregularly or had escaped the hands of the school inspector.

There is another point with reference to pauper children. The Sheffield Board of Guardians has done a wise thing. Our pauper system is one of the worst that ever disgraced a civilized country. We breed paupers. We have an increasing number of paupers. The Sheffield Board has undertaken that every pauper child shall be freed from the stigma of pauperism. It has built homes apart from the workhouses where about thirty children are associated together, with a mother at the head; and there they lose the sense of pauperism. The pauper school is abolished; and they go to school with the other children of the neighborhood, and are dressed like other children, so that you could not distinguish them. They have the best of

whatever can be given them. The result is that these children grow up to be better men and women than their parents. It is an experiment, but we feel that it is the right thing to do. Other Boards of Guardians are considering the plan, and I hope that we shall wipe out this great blot from our national escutcheon.

I have enjoyed the papers that I have heard, and I wish you all success in your charitable work on this side of the water.

Adjourned at 10 P.M.

SIXTH SESSION.

Monday morning, May 27.

The Conference was called to order in Alumni Hall at 10 A.M., the President in the chair. Prayer was offered by Rev. William D. Mossman, of New Haven.

The Reports of States were continued, — Delaware, Idaho, Illinois, Indiana, Indian Territory, Iowa, Kansas, Kentucky, and Virginia.

In addition to the report from Illinois, Miss Julia C. Lathrop, of the Illinois State Board of Charities, was asked to speak.

Miss LATHROP.— In addition to the report of the Corresponding Secretary I may say that we feel that the work of Illinois during the past year has been of some importance in one or two directions, at least. In the administration of the institutions I think there have been three points of positive advance. In the matter of purchasing for all the State institutions, the methods which great corporations use, like railroads, which were mentioned here, have been adopted: and the nepotism of buying groceries of a favored son has practically ceased. All the supplies for the State institutions are now purchased on requisition, and we have been able to show a creditable decrease in their cost. The great advance to be made in Illinois is not so much on the material side as in the matter of the more scientific care of those classes especially which demand custodial looking after. We have been able to secure the appointment of internes in the hospital for the insane. One examination has been held, but it was on short notice, and only a small number applied; but it resulted in the appointment of five internes. We anticipate from it a very profound improvement in the medical care, more than might seem to be expected from so slight a change. It is also true that, while we have no law which requires the employment of female physicians, the Board has secured through its urgency the appointment of women physicians for the hospital for the insane. The charities of Chicago have a promise of greater usefulness from the establishment

of a Bureau of Charities. Chicago is unique among the great cities of the country in having no association of its charities. The one proposed is the continuation of the registration bureau, which has been in operation for some time; and it is hoped that before long we shall have an association of our charities in that city.

Mr. C. E. FAULKNER, Kansas.— The most important legislation in Kansas last year was the revision of the penal code and the establishment of a new prison or reformatory on the Elmira plan. Provision has been made for additional care for the insane, and the legislature has been asked to establish a third asylum. The institution for dependent and neglected children, which takes all children who are dependent, received an appropriation of $91,800 to complete the plans for caring for three hundred children. With the process of home finding, we think this will satisfy all the needs of Kansas for dependent children. We co-operate with the county visiting agents; and we have a State agent at the capital, who supervises the placing out. I believe that covers the important points.

Mr. HART.— I question whether you will hear as comprehensive a statement made in three minutes as that from Kansas. The superintendent of the Reform School there reports better work and more systematic work in the industrial department. The superintendent at Topeka has been reinstated by the same Board that deposed him.

The Committee on Organization was announced by the President as follows: —

F. H. Wines, Illinois, chairman; Mrs. E. Coffin, California; J. S. Appel, Colorado; Francis Wayland, Connecticut; Mrs. M. A. T. Clark, Delaware; H. W. Lewis, District of Columbia; Alexander Johnson, Indiana; Rev. Dr. William Salter, Iowa; C. E. Faulkner, Kansas; W. T. Rolph, Kentucky; Edwin P. Wentworth, Maine; John M. Glenn, Maryland; F. B. Sanborn, Massachusetts; James Shepherd, Michigan; H. H. Hart, Minnesota; Luther P. Ludden, Nebraska; Mrs. E. E. Williamson, New Jersey; Dr. Charles S. Hoyt, New York; T. W. Patton, North Carolina; Gen. R. Brinkerhoff, Ohio; Mrs. M. D. Holcomb, Oregon; Philip C. Garrett, Pennsylvania; Dr. George C. Wilson, Rhode Island; W. C. Kilvington, Tennessee; S. A. Andrews, Vermont; Robert Gillian, Virginia; A. O. Wright, Wisconsin; J. J. Kelso, Canada.

The subject of the day was taken up,— "Homes for Soldiers and Sailors." The first paper was read by Mr. C. E. Faulkner (page 310), who read letters on the subject from the War Department, from General Franklin, Major Dudley, and others. A paper on "Pensions" was read by Mr. A. O. Wright (page 303).

The Committee on Time and Place was appointed by the chair as follows: —

Homer Folks, New York, chairman; John E. Coffin, California; Ida N. Beaver, M.D., Colorado; H. D. Smith, Connecticut; Mrs. M. A. T. Clark, Delaware; Theo. L. Smith, District of Columbia; George W. Curtiss, Illinois; Timothy Nicholson, Indiana; J. A. Lukens, Iowa; C. E. Faulkner, Kansas; W. T. Rolph, Kentucky; Mrs. H. B. C. Beedy, Maine; Jeffrey R. Brackett, Maryland; Laban Pratt, Massachusetts; Alfred O. Crozier, Michigan; J. F. Jackson, Minnesota; Rev. Theodore M. Finney, Missouri; Luther P. Ludden, Nebraska; Miss F. L. Patton, North Carolina; Rev. George C. Maddock, New Jersey; Charles Parrott, Ohio; Mrs. M. D. Holcomb, Oregon; Joshua L. Bailey, Pennsylvania; Rev. J. H. Nutting, Rhode Island; W. D. Cardwell, Tennessee; James Lyons, Virginia; B. F. Moore, Vermont; James E. Heg, Wisconsin; C. J. Atkinson, Canada.

DISCUSSION ON SOLDIERS' HOMES.

Gen. BRINKERHOFF.— This whole subject is new to this Conference. It is the first time that it has been presented. It has been so well presented in the report — for, though I am a member of the committee, the work has been done by the chairman of it — that I am delighted with it. Mr. Wright's presentation of his subject is an intelligent one. We who have the inspection of soldiers' homes know how valuable the information is that has been presented here. The report will do a great deal of good. I have only one or two suggestions that I would like to make in regard to Mr. Wright's paper. What he has said in regard to pensions is valuable. That matter has given us a great deal of trouble in our State. What he has said about intoxication is important. I visited our State Soldiers' Home in Ohio two weeks ago. They have solved that trouble there. They have adopted this plan. Notice was given to all the inmates of the home that any one found intoxicated would be discharged. The result has been that drunkenness has almost disappeared.

Mr. Wright asked that Mrs. A. M. Bliss might speak.

Mrs. BLISS.— I wish to have the Women's Relief Corps spoken of, and I am requested to say something of the home for army nurses which has been established near Madison, Ohio. This home has been in operation four years, and it has cared for a great number of nurses who actually worked on the battlefields and in the hospitals during the war. There are now about thirty nurses there. They

began the building with something less than two thousand dollars which had been contributed mostly by the Women's Relief Corps, which is auxiliary to the Grand Army of the Republic; and it claims to be the largest organization of women in the United States. They have dispensed more than a million dollars annually since their organization eleven years ago, under the supervision of committees which see that there is no indiscriminate charity. The Army Nurses' Home has acquired, by gift and otherwise, appropriations from Ohio until they have a property valued at about sixty thousand dollars. They have sixty acres of land under a high state of cultivation, with suitable farm buildings to carry on the work of the farm. They have a hospital, and the State appropriated $35,000 for a building which is called the Ohio Cottage. It will probably accommodate all the nurses that will apply. Applications are received from nearly every State in the Union.

Mr. FAULKNER.— We have Mother Bikerdike, the famous army nurse, in Kansas. We are going to care for her there.

Adjourned at 12 M.

SEVENTH SESSION.

Monday night, May 27.

The Conference met in the United Church, and was called to order at eight o'clock. Prayer was offered by Rev. Mr. Lines.

Mr. Wines reported that the Committee on Organization had chosen a subcommittee of fifteen which was charged with the duty of making the report to the Conference. Any suggestions as to the officers or members of the standing committees were to be made to him as chairman.

The report of the Committee on Administration of Public and Private Relief was made by the chairman, Rev. C. G. Trusdell, of Chicago (page 66).

A paper on "Poverty and its Relief: the Methods possible in the City of New York" was read by Mrs. C. R. Lowell (page 44).

A paper on "Outdoor Public Relief in Massachusetts" was read by Mr. T. F. Ring, president of Particular Council of St. Vincent de Paul Society (page 61).

A paper on "The Best Method of Relief in Small Cities" was read by Rev. J. C. Brooks, of Springfield, Mass. (page 54).

Adjourned at 10 P.M.

EIGHTH SESSION.

Tuesday morning, May 28.

The Conference was called to order at 10 A.M. by the Secretary. Prayer was offered by Rev. Fosdick B. Harrison. The reports from States were continued,— Louisiana, Maine, Nebraska, Maryland, Massachusetts, Michigan.

At the conclusion of the report from Michigan a member inquired if it would be in order to ask the Conference to request the Governor of Michigan to veto the bill in favor of capital punishment in Michigan.

The PRESIDENT.— Action of that kind is usually referred to the Committee on Resolutions.

Mr. A. O. CROZIER, Michigan.— I do not know what the sentiment of this Conference is, but some of us from Michigan are opposed to having our State go back to the old theory. If it were the unanimous sentiment of this Conference that it is opposed to capital punishment, it would have great influence there.

Dr. S. G. SMITH.— I move that this subject be referred to the Committee on Resolutions.

Voted.

The report from New Jersey was read.

The report of the Committee on the Feeble-minded was made by the chairman, Dr. George H. Knight, Lakeville, Conn. (page 150).

A paper on "The Training of an Idiotic Hand" was read by Dr. S. J. Fort, of Ellicott City, Md. (page 155).

A paper on "The Protection and Training of Feeble-minded Women" was read by C. W. Winspear, Superintendent State Custodial Asylum, Newark, N.Y. (page 160).

DISCUSSION ON THE CARE OF THE FEEBLE-MINDED.

Dr. W. B. FISH, Wheaton, Ill.— I have been much interested in the papers presented, and regard them as valuable contributions to the somewhat scanty literature on this subject. As I listened to Dr. Knight, I was reminded that his father was one of the members of the original commission appointed to investigate the condition of the feeble-minded many years ago. That commission reported that in their investigations they had found one place where a feeble-minded woman had been received into an almshouse on three sep-

arate occasions, and that on each occasion she had given birth to a child. It seems to me strange that an intelligent community will tolerate anything of that kind; and yet I will venture to say that in nearly every State of the Union you will find something of this character going on. The time will come when we shall say, No more of this foolish policy. I was interested in the paper in regard to the custody of feeble-minded women, and I want to emphasize a point that has been made this morning in regard to preventive measures. I do not think we have ever fully realized what these appalling figures mean,— 96,000 feeble-minded in this country. The number of defectives is second only to that of the insane. We have got to grapple with this problem. There is an economical question to be considered. One justly distinguished in this work has made a remark which seems to me pertinent,— that, however much it may cost to take care of these unfortunate people, it is going to cost in the end far more to neglect them. If you leave them uncared for, they will revenge themselves on society, and increase the burden of taxation. The intelligent way of dealing with this question is to take them under State care. I have a hobby in regard to the colony plan. I believe in agricultural training for as many as can take it. At Lincoln, Ill., we had eight hundred acres under cultivation, and we employed only two paid men. The rest of the work was done by the older boys of the institution. I want to thank the members of the Conference for the interest they take in our subject.

Mr. A. O. Wright, Wisconsin.— The results of the propagation of idiocy have come practically under my observation in my inspection of poorhouses in Wisconsin. We have one poorhouse in a small county, which was erected for no other reason than in order to have a place to commit a mother and seven idiotic sons. Those sons were born in matrimony. I know another case of a feeble-minded woman, an inmate of another county poorhouse; and the superintendents of the poor married her off to a man of low intelligence who came along, with the expectation that the vagrant would wander away with his newly acquired wife, which he did. But he came back, and settled himself there; and there they are now, a burden on the county with their increasing posterity. They are of a very low grade of intelligence, but not absolutely feeble-minded. On the other hand, I wish to say that in Wisconsin for many years we have done the best we could, and have retained feeble-minded women in the poorhouses, and have not allowed them to go out; and so we have secured substantially good results. The new institution to be erected will receive all of these.

Dr. M. McG. Dana.— I never listen to a discussion on this subject without feeling that a minor note is being struck. About all our remedial work there is a glow of promise. About the preventive work there is a fascination; but, when we come to this subject, we

have nothing to appeal to but the humane instincts of the human heart. And I confess to a feeling of unbounded admiration for the men and women who are willing to give themselves with all their gifts to the improvement and care of this class. There is culpable apathy in those States which allow this class to go uncared for, doing absolutely nothing to meet this menace to society. I have also, what you must share with me, an unfathomable pity for this dependent class. This Conference has not only a great duty toward the general public in generously giving a voice to the unspoken plea of these unfortunates, but it has a duty to influence public opinion in this matter. I hold it to be a burning shame that in this stage of civilization there should be indifference to this side and phase of work which has in it not only the cry of necessity, but calls on our humanity to do something. I am in perfect accord with Dr. Knight's colony plan. These experts speak to us *ex cathedra*. We ought to go out into the world, into our several communities, and say in the ears of our legislators, in cadences that cannot be misunderstood, that the care of this class is importunate. It is perfectly atrocious that imbecile men and women should go up and down our land, propagating their kind. The older governments of Europe keep them apart for the safety of society: we in this country breed them. Let us do something to elevate the public conscience, and not cease our efforts till something is done to meet the necessities of the case. I always feel like personally thanking those who bring the results of their wisdom as experts in the practical care of this class. I never hear the subject mentioned without reverting to one who was always a delightful presence, Dr. Kerlin; and I think of this delightful band of workers with sympathy and admiration. They well deserve all the support we can give them.

Judge M. D. FOLLETT, Ohio.— It is cheaper to take care of this class than to neglect them. The only objection to our doing it at our institution in Ohio is that we have not land enough in Columbus, and the people are not willing that we should have more there. They should be taken into the country, where they can be cared for. On one occasion I visited our institution, and I asked to see all the inmates that came from my county of 45,000 inhabitants. I was taken into another room, and I found that there was a roomful from that one county. I was astonished. Talk about 90,000 in the United States! I believe there are more than twice that number of feeble-minded in this country; but Dr. Doren will take care of those we have in Ohio if they will give him the land. I should emphasize what Dr. Knight says, what we have to do is to learn the facts, and press them before our legislators all over the country, before both parties; and, if we did that, I do not believe it would be a year before farms in every State would be provided for these men and women, and society would be protected. I believe in caring for the men as well as for the women.

Dr. KNIGHT.— We all believe in caring for both sexes; but the point is, if you start your preventive work right, you will not have so many of the other sex to take care of in the years to come. This is a delicate subject, but we may as well handle it. The feeble-minded woman must be protected, because the father of the illegitimate child she bears is not at all feeble-minded. Evil men take advantage of these feeble-minded women, and that is the thing we have to remember and guard against.

Miss MARY E. RICHMOND, Baltimore, Md.— A good deal has been said about influencing legislators. Why not educate the community at large? I was very much interested in a chapter in Dr. A. G. Warner's "American Charities," in which he speaks of the segregation of the unfit. His facts are conservatively, clearly, and scientifically stated; and I believe you could do no better thing than to put that knowledge before those who are beginning to study this subject. It might serve as a text-book for classes and even for advanced Sunday-school classes. It should go into seminary work and Chautauqua work. It is written in popular style, but is at the same time thoroughly clear and scientific. It cannot fail to be read with great interest. We want to educate people to appreciate what the marriage of the unfit means, and then in time we might secure the passage of a law which would make it necessary for all people contracting marriage to present a certificate that there is no hereditary insanity; for people seem more afraid of insanity than anything else. Why not make that an entering wedge for education all along this line?

Mr. H. H. HART.— My experience has followed closely that of Mr. Wright. I have known of numerous cases where women have gone to almshouses to be confined, have gone out into the community, and have come back again for the same purpose. As the small almshouses are administered and as they are built, many of them do not offer sufficient protection to these women; and the consequence is that in many of them there have been scandals resulting from the presence of feeble-minded women. I appreciate the necessity of work for the children. There is usually little trouble about them, but every State that starts in with children will do as we did in our State. When Dr. Knight's father first came to us in Minnesota, and when afterward Dr. Knight himself came to us, the children were first cared for. We thought we were going to educate them, but those same children seventeen years later are men and women grown in that institution to-day. The State was logically forced to the custodial care of these children. But there is another phase to the subject. Its importance is not simply restricted to the care of those who need public care and those who belong to the pauper class. The presence of a feeble-minded girl in a community, especially a rural community, is not only something that endangers the public purse, but such a girl is

demoralizing to the young men and boys. The removal of such a girl is a matter of vital importance to the general moral interests of the community. This cannot be a matter of debate on the part of any one who has ever given study to this matter. That a State like Ohio should to-day be turning back to the almshouses the feeble-minded young people, where the expense is greater and where they cannot be as well guarded, indicates that a voice must be raised in this matter. Michigan is about to open her asylum for this class. Wisconsin has secured legislation enough. I hope they will not come as slowly to the necessity of custodial care. There is just as much reason for public care for the feeble-minded man or woman as for public care of the chronic insane. The difference between the public care of the adult imbecile and the chronic insane is about the difference between tweedledum and tweedledee.

Gen. BRINKERHOFF.— Mr. Hart has referred to Ohio. I admit the fact. I am not proud of it. But we have recently been constructing a large number of new institutions. We have a reformatory at Mansfield, a new insane hospital, and an epileptic hospital. The next thing we are going to have in Ohio is custodial care of idiots. Seventeen years ago, when I first became a member of the State Board of Charities, in visiting institutions I drifted into Dr. Wilbur's institution in Syracuse; and there I remained two days, and there and at Newark my interest in this particular work began. Dr. Wilbur was the first man who ever thoroughly satisfied me of the possibility of non-restraint for the insane, and I remember that with gratitude. He thoroughly convinced me — Dr. Byers was already convinced — of the fact that restraint was unnecessary; and to-day you will not find in Ohio a single instance of restraint. I want to congratulate myself and the Conference on Dr. Knight's paper. We shall want five hundred copies at least to circulate in the State of Ohio for the new legislature.

Miss JULIA C. LATHROP, Chicago.— Those of us who have visited the country districts realize that, while we of the laity have come to recognize some of the subtle forms of insanity, we are still very dull in recognizing mental deficiency. Often and often in those communities one sees persons whom the expert knows at once to be feeble-minded, and therefore unfit to be left unprotected. To illustrate, I will cite one instance. I met in the poorhouse in the southern part of Illinois a woman with an infant of three months and a child of six years. For eighteen years this woman had been in and out of that poorhouse. Eight children had been born to her, and all eight lay in the dooryard of the poorhouse; and she was already a grandparent. I do not think it is possible to arraign our civilization more seriously in this regard than to think that within this generation such a woman had been constantly allowed to go out into the community, carrying demoralization and misery.

Still, Illinois admits its reproach, and is on the highway to a better policy.

Mr. ERNEST BICKNELL, Indiana.— I think that evils are often exaggerated, but I do not know how the evil depicted here can be exaggerated. I think it is one of the very worst evils, and it must be met sooner or later in this country. In Indiana the Board of State Charities within the last year has given some systematic effort to collecting information on this subject. The census of 1890 shows that Indiana's share of the 90,000 feeble-minded is about 5,600. 500 of these are in the school for the feeble-minded. 800 are in poorhouses and county asylums. Of this 800, 400 are women. Last summer I visited one of our county poor asylums; and there I found two children a few months old, both feeble-minded or totally idiotic. The mothers of the two children were sisters, both feeble-minded. One child was the fifth which the mother had borne, the other was the third. These two children were born on the same day. All the children of both mothers had been feeble-minded, and several are now being supported in our State School for the Feeble-minded. In other counties similar things may be found. The more it is investigated, the more appalling the facts become; and it is not a difficult matter to find these cases. In twenty-five county poor asylums, during the six years I have been keeping the records of the inmates, there have been 55 women, who have borne 130 illegitimate feeble-minded children. I do not mean that these children have been born within the six years, but those mothers have been inmates of county poor asylums. The superintendents of our poor asylums are conscientious, earnest men; but they have poor help, and not enough. The county commissioners do not appreciate the situation. The women often run away. It is absolutely impossible in our county system to protect these women. It cannot be done. New York has made a grand start in the right direction. We have taken no step, except that the Board of State Charities has recommended for several years that provision be made for custodial care. We shall eventually succeed. It is only a question of time; and we trust, of course, of a short time.

Mr. Z. K. PANGBORN, New Jersey.— We know, perhaps, enough of the needs and horrors of the situation. I should like to know what can be accomplished by scientific and faithful training of the feeble-minded, and should like to hear from Dr. Mary J. Dunlap, superintendent of the school for feeble-minded in Vineland, N.J.

Dr. MARY J. DUNLAP.— There has been nothing said of the education of the girls. We speak of them as girls. We never use the term women, because, no matter how old they are, they are always irresponsible children. They can be trained to do many things. Our girls work in the garden and in the house, and have calisthenics and work of various kinds. Music is also taught. They seem to

memorize better by music, and it makes their studies more interesting. We have one girl who has become quite a violinist, another plays the clarinet, and several play the piano. Of course, those that are capable are taught to read and write.

QUESTION.— To what age do you keep them?

Dr. DUNLAP.— From twelve to forty-five, by State law. We feel that they never ought to go out, because, if they go out, we cannot get the world to take the same interest in them that we do. We could send out girls who would make first-class servants; but what mistresses will shield them? We do not feel sure that we can trust them.

Mr. ALEXANDER JOHNSON, Indiana.— In 1891 Dr. Fish told us that the colony plan was the correct plan, the most economical, and the best in every way. We believe it now in Indiana. The last legislature appropriated a sum of money to buy land, and the trustees bought two hundred and fifty acres, protected by primeval forest; and there is hope that in a few years we shall have a place for the adult female imbeciles. The land is well adapted to fruit culture, and it will be a fine place to have a canning industry, to be conducted by the women. That is a practical thing. With regard to the question which people are always asking, why it is worth while to put so much care and effort and money into educating people who are to be in permanent custody, the answer is, they are educated for the life they are to lead. A great many of them can be made practically self-supporting if they have the education which we give them. If we can be patient with them, be kind to them, bear them on our hearts sufficiently, we can make them into pretty competent citizens in a colony of the feeble-minded, but not of the great world. That is why we educate the educable, although they are never to be self-controlling citizens.

Rev. G. C. MADDOCK, New Jersey.— I want to suggest to any of you who are interested in this work that you cannot do better than see the work Dr. Dunlap is doing.

Dr. DUNLAP.— No, go and visit the institution nearest your own homes. You will find just as good work there and just as many things of interest.

The following resolution was offered by Mr. F. M. McAlister, New Jersey: —

> It is the sense of this body that the papers which have been presented should be examined by the Executive Committee, and a resolution upon this subject drawn up to be presented to the legislatures of the country asking them to provide against this evil.

Mr. J. E. HEG, Wisconsin.— Of all the people here, no one probably is more interested in this subject than Mr. Snyder and myself. Our Board of Control has received an appropriation of a hundred

thousand dollars for this work. We have come down here to learn about it. We want to meet the men and women who will give us advice how to start. We want to begin right. We do not know whether we want to begin with school cases or custodial cases.

Mr. F. H. WINES asked that Professor W. H. Brewer, of Yale, might be invited to speak.

Prof. BREWER.— I have been intensely interested in that portion of the papers relating to the prevention of this horror, for I know not what else to call it. As a member of the Board of Health for a good many years, I have been specially impressed with the value of prevention. The great work here is to be preventive. For many years I have lectured on heredity, largely in relation to the domestic animals. Now, whatever belief we may have in regard to the destiny of man and his moral nature, there is one point on which scientists agree: that in everything which relates to heredity and variation and generation the same laws govern man and brute. We have an enormous amount of evidence which is confirmed by our observations. It has been said that no exceptionally clever man had a dull mother, and that is entirely in line with all our observations on the animals. Breeders act on this rule. I could tell some stories relating to these feeble-minded mothers more horrible than any that have been spoken of. It seems to me it is the duty of every State in the Union to pass laws that shall prevent the breeding of this breed of men. It is perpetuated in the same way that we would perpetuate a poor breed of stock. The feeble-minded should be segregated, and the great hope of the future in this respect is in the protection of the women.

Mrs. H. B. C. BEEDY, Maine.— Last summer, in trying to work among children, we found a nice little house, and asked who was in it. We were told that a feeble-minded man, a feeble-minded woman, and their five children lived in it. We asked why they were propagating such a family, and were told that there was no law by which they could separate the husband and wife. This Conference might do some good by disseminating its literature among selectmen and other people in country towns.

NOTE.— Since this discussion the Connecticut legislature has passed the following bill: —

HOUSE BILL NO. 681.

Be it enacted by the Senate and House of Representatives in General Assembly convened: —

SECTION 1. No man and woman, either of whom is epileptic, imbecile, or feeble-minded, shall intermarry, or live together as husband and wife, when the woman is under forty-five years of age. Any person violating or attempting to violate any of the provisions of this section shall be imprisoned in the State prison not less than three years.

SECT. 2. Any selectman or any other person who shall advise, aid, abet, cause, or assist in procuring, or countenance any violation of section one of this act, or the marriage of any pauper when the woman in such marriage is under forty-five

years of age, shall be fined not less than one thousand dollars, or imprisoned not less than one year or both.

SECT. 3. Every man who shall carnally know any female under the age of forty-five years who is epileptic, imbecile, feeble-minded, or a pauper, shall be imprisoned in the State prison not less than three years. Every man who is epileptic who shall carnally know any female under the age of forty-five years, and every female under the age of forty-five years who shall consent to be carnally known by any man who is epileptic, imbecile, or feeble-minded, shall be imprisoned in the State prison not less than three years.

The report of the Committee on Time and Place was made by the chairman, Mr. Homer Folks, of New York, as follows: —

The Committee on Time and Place would respectfully report that a meeting was held at five o'clock P.M., Monday, May 27, attended by twenty-five of the twenty-nine members of the committee. Mr. J. F. Jackson, of Minnesota, was elected secretary. Cordial invitations for the next Conference to meet within their borders were received from Los Angeles, Cal., Davenport, Ia., Topeka, Kan., Grand Rapids, Mich., and Richmond, Va.

The invitation from Los Angeles was extended on behalf of the Board of Trade, and that from Davenport on behalf of the City Council and others. The invitation from Topeka was by concurrent resolution of both branches of the legislature, and was submitted by the Governor. This was said to be the first invitation extended to the Conference by a State legislature. It was accompanied by a letter from the Secretary of State, offering the use of the capitol for the meetings of the Conference, and by an invitation from the governor of the National Home for Soldiers, at Leavenworth, to visit that institution. The invitation from Grand Rapids was, on behalf of the Charity Organization Society, a mass meeting of the citizens, the Mayor and Common Council, the Board of Trade, the Governor of the State, the President of the University of Michigan, and others.

The committee unanimously recommend that the next session of the National Conference of Charities and Correction be held in Grand Rapids, Mich.

The committee beg leave, with the consent of the Conference, to refer the matter of the time for holding the next Conference to the Executive Committee of the Conference, with a request that the date of final adjournment be fixed not later than May 27, 1896.

The delegation from Philadelphia, in behalf of the Charity Organization Society, gave notice that they would at the next session of the Conference extend an invitation for the Conference of 1897 to meet at Philadelphia.

The invitations which have been submitted in writing are filed with this report. Respectfully submitted,

HOMER FOLKS, *Chairman.*
JAMES F. JACKSON, *Secretary.*

Mr. C. E. FAULKNER, Kansas.— I owe it to the people I represent to make a brief explanation. The invitation to this Conference to hold its next session in Kansas was the result of the action of public men in our State. We have labored there to secure remedial legislation; and it was suggested at the recent session of the legislature that, if we could secure the session of the Conference of Charities and Correction, it would have such an influence that it would be easy afterward to obtain the necessary changes in our laws. It was decided by a concurrent resolution of the two houses to invite this Conference, with the stipulation that the invitation should be transmitted officially by the governor. That has been done. For many years, beginning in Buffalo, Kansas has endeavored to secure a session of this Conference. I would like to have this go on record, so that it may be understood that Kansas still asks to be considered a candidate for entertaining this Conference, and that we shall be present at the next session to renew that invitation.

Mr. P. C. GARRETT protested against the Conference going to places where it was of no special service. He thought it should go where it could do the most work. He believed that would apply to Kansas or to Pennsylvania.

After farther discussion, in which Mr. Folks, Mr. L. C. Storrs, Mr. J. S. Appel, Mr. A. O. Crozier, and General Brinkerhoff took part, General Brinkerhoff moved to amend the report by substituting the words Topeka, Kan., for Grand Rapids, Mich.

The amendment was lost (27–55), and the report as made was adopted.

On motion of Rev. L. P. Ludden it was voted to print the invitations from Kansas, which were as follows: —

TOPEKA, KAN., March 28, 1895.

Hon. ROBERT TREAT PAINE, President of the Twenty-second National Conference of Charities and Correction, New Haven, Conn.:

Dear Sir,— Pursuant to the request of the legislature, of the State of Kansas, I take pleasure in transmitting through you the enclosed certified copy of a resolution adopted by the legislature, extending an invitation to the National Conference of Charities and Correction to hold its twenty-third annual session, occurring during the year 1896, in the State of Kansas.

In presenting this invitation, I desire to express my appreciation of the valuable service rendered by the Conference through its past deliberations, and to testify my sympathy with the purposes of its organization.

E. W. MORRILL,
Governor.

HOUSE CONCURRENT RESOLUTION, No. 31.

Whereas the National Conference of Charities and Correction affords opportunity for a comparison and study of the methods employed in the care, treatment, and disposition of the dependent, defective, and delinquent classes of population, which may be utilized for the public good,

Therefore, *Resolved*,

First, That an invitation is hereby extended to said Conference to hold its twenty-third annual session, which convenes in 1896, in the State of Kansas.

Second, That the governor of the State is hereby requested to transmit a copy of these resolutions, duly attested, to the presiding officer of said Conference during its next annual session, which convenes in New Haven, Conn., in May, 1895.

I hereby certify that the foregoing "House Concurrent Resolution, No. 31," passed the House on the twenty-eighth day of February, 1895, and passed the Senate on the fourth day of March, 1895.

FRANK L. BROWN,
Chief Clerk, House of Representatives, State of Kansas.

Attest: W. C. EDWARDS,
Secretary of State.

DEPARTMENT OF STATE, TOPEKA, KAN., May 5, 1895.

Dear Sir,—I am glad to tender you the Representative and Senatorial Halls for the session of the National Conference of Charities and Correction that will be held in 1896. I called the attention of our Executive Council to this matter yesterday, and there was a unanimous expression and request made upon me to make this tender to you. We will see that halls, committee-rooms, janitor services, etc., for your session will be free of all expense to you. We hope very much that you may be able to get this Conference to meet with us.

Ever your friend,

W. C. EDWARDS,
Secretary of State.

Hon. C. E. FAULKNER, Atchison, Kan.

LEAVENWORTH COUNTY, KAN., May 7, 1895.

Colonel CHARLES E. FAULKNER, Chairman Committee on Homes for Soldiers and Sailors, New Haven, Conn.:

My dear Colonel,—Understanding that the Twenty-second National Conference of Charities and Correction will meet at New Haven on the 22d inst., and that the city of Topeka has invited it to hold its next annual Conference at the capital, I have the honor to invite the Conference to visit the Western Branch, National Home for Disabled Volunteer Soldiers and Sailors, should it accept that city's invitation. We have a membership present of over 2,400; and I believe that mutual advantages would accrue from the visit of so distinguished a body of gentlemen, whose sole object, individually and collectively, is the amelioration of the condition of the unfortunate.

The veterans here will assist the officers of the home in making your stay pleasant. I insure you a hearty welcome and a pleasant day.

I have the honor to be, very respectfully, your obedient servant,

A. J. SMITH,
Governor.

Mr. A. Johnson moved to send the thanks of the Conference to Kansas for the kind invitations.

Referred to the Committee on Time and Place.

On motion of Mr. F. H. Wines it was voted that the date of the meeting in 1896 should be left to the Executive Committee.

An invitation to visit the Yale gymnasium was given by Professor Brewer.

An invitation from Mr. and Mrs. Henry Farnham to a lawn party, May 29, from 4.30 to 6.30 P.M., was accepted by unanimous vote.

Adjourned at 12.30 P.M.

NINTH SESSION.

Tuesday night, May 28.

The Conference was called to order by the President at 8 P.M., in the United Church. Prayer was offered by Rev. Lewis O. Braston. The session was then devoted to the Committee on Charity Organization, Mr. J. R. Brackett, of Baltimore, chairman. The report of the committee was made by Mr. Brackett (page 80).

The following papers were then read: "The Continued Care of Families," by Miss Frances A. Smith (page 87), read in the absence of the writer by Miss Mary Birtwell, of Boston; "Is Emergency Relief by Work Wise?" by Philip W. Ayres, of Cincinnati (page 96); "The Permanent Improvement of Neighborhoods," by Miss Clare de Graffenried, Washington, D.C. (page 101); "The Louisville Charity Organization Society and its Work," by W. T. Rolph (page 93).

Adjourned at 10 P.M.

TENTH SESSION.

Wednesday morning, May 29.

The Conference was called to order by the President at 10 A.M., in the Alumni Hall. Prayer was offered by Dr. Newman Smyth.

Reports from States were continued, — Missouri, New York, Ohio, Oklahoma, Pennsylvania, Rhode Island, South Carolina.

The subject of the morning was taken up, the report of the Committee on Care of the Insane, Dr. J. W. Babcock, South Carolina, chairman. A paper on "The Colored Insane" was read by Dr. Babcock (page 164).

A letter was read from Hon. W. P. Letchworth, saying that sickness had prevented the preparation of the paper which he had been expected to present. Mr. Sanborn moved that, if the paper were completed before the printing of the Proceedings, it should be included therein. Referred to the Executive Committee.

A resolution concerning the study of child desertion was offered by Rev. E. P. Savage. Referred to Executive Committee.

The following resolution, offered by Mr. Henry Baldwin, was referred to the Executive Committee: —

Resolved, That, in the interest of friendship, good will, and peace, and for the furtherance of the objects of charity, correction, reform, and good government, it is expedient that some steps should be taken to secure papers, and a representation by delegates to the future sessions of this Conference from the various republics of this continent.

DISCUSSION ON INSANITY.

Prof. W. F. Blackman, New Haven. — Has Dr. Babcock made investigation into the frequency of the occurrence of insanity in Africa?

Dr. Babcock. — We have had people in the Boston public library examine to see whether there are any references there to that subject, but their efforts have been in vain. The most interesting paper I have found was in the January number of the British *Journal of Mental Science*, with reference to insanity in South Africa.

Question. — What proportion of violent insane do you find among the blacks as compared with the whites?

Dr. Babcock. — I cannot give you the proportion. I had a great deal of trepidation in undertaking the work in South Carolina, for I thought the colored insane would be hard to take care of. But Dr. Powell, who has been there thirty-two years doing this work, says the negroes make excellent patients, even when insane. The natural docility of the race comes out even when they are insane. My own opinion is that in Southern asylums insanity is somewhat milder. These are impressions rather than scientific statements. They are the impressions that one gets in his daily work. Violent manias are very rare at the South. As compared with Northern hospitals, the patients are more quiet. There is comparatively little melancholia; and, therefore, we should expect to find few suicides.

and we do. In Columbia, S.C., they have never had a case of suicide, and only one case at Goldsboro. A full-blooded African is not suicidal.

QUESTION.— How about homicidal tendencies?

Dr. BABCOCK.— I think they must be pretty rare. My colored men are docile, tractable patients, more so than you find in any Northern hospital.

QUESTION.— Have you made any examination of the relative insanity in full blacks, mulattoes, quadroons, octoroons, and Sambos?

Dr. BABCOCK.— I have no such statistics, but I think the question will be answered when the report of the census of 1890 is made out. In that a separation is made between "blacks" and "colored people."

QUESTION.— What is your opinion as regards the effect of miscegenation?

Dr. BABCOCK.— After four years' experience I do not think I have any opinion to give that would be worth giving.

QUESTION.— Are the great majority of your patients full-blooded?

Dr. BABCOCK.— A writer on these subjects in a paper sent to Berlin said that by "colored insane" he meant persons of African descent only, because to-day a full-blooded Negro could not be found in the United States. I was amazed that a scientific gentleman should send abroad such a statement as that. After hearing it, I selected some intelligent colored attendants, and asked them to make a census of something over two hundred men; and of those forty per cent. of my patients were full-blooded Africans. On the islands of the Carolina coast they are practically an unmixed race.

QUESTION.— You have some criminal insane?

Dr. BABCOCK.— More cases of feigned insanity. It has become rather fashionable to feign insanity to escape punishment for crime.

QUESTION.— Are they skilful enough to feign it?

Dr. BABCOCK.— They have skill enough to feign it to such an extent that they are committed for further observation.

QUESTION.— What are the leading causes of insanity among the colored people?

Dr. BABCOCK.— I have not tabulated the causes; but my own impression is that my colored patients, particularly the young, have, at least, as a predisposing cause and even as an exciting cause, the concomitants of extreme poverty. I believe it is fashionable now in Germany to speak of it by a Latin term, we use plain English, and say starvation.

Professor GOULD.— The figures that colored people give of their mixture of white blood are not very reliable. A man asked a colored boy how much colored blood he had in him. He said he didn't know: his grandfather was black, his father was a mulatto, his mother was a quadroon; and then he looked puzzled, and continued, "I don't see, boss, but I'm a nigger and a half." That is

about the value of any statistical showing of the colored element in the race. When we consider the difficulties of getting at the causes of insanity and expressing them statistically in addition to that, we shall see that we shall be apt to get a conglomerate of falsehood.

Dr. BABCOCK.— Our figures have only a relative value.

Mr. SANBORN.— You mean they are distant cousins to the truth.

QUESTION.— Have you discovered any cases of insanity caused by religious excitement?

Dr. BABCOCK.— It is often caused in the remote country districts, where they meet Saturday afternoons, and go to revival meetings, and become very much excited and eat nothing. They become so exhausted that their mental equilibrium is unbalanced.

A paper was read by Mr. F. B. Sanborn, of Concord, Mass., on "The Increase of Insanity" (page 186).

An address on "Anthropometric Measurements" was given by Dr. Arthur MacDonald, of Washington, as follows: —

ADDRESS OF DR. ARTHUR MACDONALD.

There are three parts of the man that may be measured,— the osseous frame, the muscles, and the nervous system. In measuring the osseous frame, we take the height, the reach, the size of the cranium, etc. They are easily taken.

Then, in measuring muscular power, we measure the strength of lift of arms and the strength of grasp. These added together give us approximately the strength of the person. There is an instrument also called the spiromometer for measuring the lung capacity.

But an important thing to know is the measurement of the nervous system. The senses of sight and hearing may be called the intellectual senses, and in contradistinction the senses of taste and smell and touch may be called the unintellectual senses. Curiously enough, you can divide the face into an intellectual zone and an unintellectual zone by these senses. As a general rule, the people who are more developed in the upper zone are more intellectual than those developed in the lower zone. The human jaw is getting smaller, and the development of the lower zone is therefore smaller. This is a fact that has been established by Dr. Talbot, of Chicago. The teeth remain the same size, and they are therefore more crowded.

When we come to the measurements of the nervous system, we require special instruments, of which I have here specimens. With the first I have measured the school children in the city of Washington. It takes about twenty minutes for each pupil. The rule is to have five children come in at once,— boys and girls together, if pos-

sible. The children should be about six years of age, to begin with. The boldest boy should be taken first, and he encourages the rest. The conditions should be the same for all,— the same chairs, tables, and order for each pupil. If there are five present, four can see what is going on. As soon as one is through and goes out, another should come in, that all may have the same amount of time to witness the experiments on the others.

The first instrument that I shall describe is for determining the sensibility to the disagreeableness of pain. By its use pressure is applied to the back of the hand or to the temporal muscle. The person observed speaks the moment the pressure becomes disagreeable, and the amount of pressure is marked with an index. There is a great difference between people in this matter. The most difficult people to experiment with that I have tried were professors in Europe, because they would reason about it instead of telling what they felt. Some persons require a great deal of pressure before they call it disagreeable. The professors at Oxford required five kilograms. In crossing the ocean on the steamship "Lucania" there were about thirty English women, and they required four kilograms' pressure. The American women required three. The American men required four kilograms, the same as the English women. Women are more sensitive to disagreeableness of pain than men, but endurance is another matter. French, German, and English women were all more sensitive than the men of the same nationality. That is what we would naturally expect.

There is a difference in the sensibility of the two hands. The left side in right-handed people is less sensitive than the right side, and the opposite should be true; but there have not been enough left-handed people measured to know. It is found that in general criminals are obtuse to this experiment, corresponding to the degree of moral obtuseness. Often a boy in a school is counted cruel, when probably the blow that he gives would not hurt him, and he thinks it would not hurt the other boy. Those boys who are cruel often require more pressure than other boys.

Another instrument may be called baro-electro-æsthesiometer. This is a new instrument specially constructed for my use. The least sensibility to pain is learned through the use of the electric current. A scale measures the amount of pressure. One of the poles is put on the forehead. As soon as the least tingling is felt, the current is measured by the galvanometer. This shows the difference in people in regard to their sensibility to the electric current. If a person is very sensitive to pressure and sensitive to the pain of the electric current, these two measurements confirm each other; and, of course, we are more certain of the results.

Another instrument, called the tambour, is used to record measurements of the emotions. It has been said that we cannot measure the emotions,— the feelings. Of course, we can only do it approxi-

mately. There is no such thing as absoluteness. Of course, all these instruments will be improved by the different specialists who use them. The tambour records the movement of the thoracic muscles. They are the muscles of emotion, *par excellence*. The more these move, as a general rule, the greater the emotion. A person sits down quietly, and is not told that you are going to do anything. The instrument is adjusted, and you find the quiet normal breathing movement. Then instantly you drop a hammer or something heavy, and watch the result on the breathing. The difference is recorded on the smoked paper of the instrument. If you speak to an emotional person of the sickness of a friend, it will instantly affect the breathing, as any psychological action affects it.

Another instrument, called the plethismograph, measures the volume of the blood in the arm; and by giving a person some quick mental work to do, such as multiplying 89 by 4, you can get some idea of the amount of blood probably needed in the brain for the process. It shows that every thought affects the circulation of the blood. Every thought affects the breathing. If you read to a criminal the sentence of death, it is depressing. If you put a glass of wine on the table, and tell him to take it, it will increase his emotions; and you can measure the amount. Take a burglar accustomed to use a pistol, and put it on the table, or touch the trigger, and it does not affect him; but it will instantly affect a normal person's emotions. A sight of a cigar will increase the emotions of the criminal more than the pistol.

Another instrument is for measuring hypnotic suggestion. It is a suspicious-looking instrument. You tell the person to tell you when he feels the tingling of the electricity in it, and, when he says he feels it, you measure the amount of pressure; but there is no electricity in it!

Another hypnotic instrument acts by straining and tiring the muscles of the upper lid,—the muscle that when we go to sleep droops. The idea is to imitate nature.

The olfactometer measures the acuteness of smell. Criminals and abnormals have often been studied in this respect, but we do not know what the normal faculty is. I am interested in getting facts about normal people. Of course there are thermometers and instruments for determining the sense of locality, of touch, and for measuring the trembling of the hands and of the tongue. The trembling of the hand in children indicates that they should be taken away from school. The general idea is to use these instruments on different classes of people. A man is abnormal if he is twenty to thirty per cent. below or above the average. We know more about criminals than we do about normal people, more about Indians than we do about civilized people, more about Africans than about white people, because we have studied them more. We know more about rocks than we do about people, but there is no special reason why

we should not study human beings just as they exist, impersonally; and then we may study them psychologically at the same time.

QUESTION.— Have you pursued these researches among the insane?

Dr. MACDONALD.— No, only on a few paupers. It is more important to make them on children. It is just as scientific and more practicable, because, if there is some defect, there is some hope of correcting it. They do not reason much. They are nearer nature. The longer we live, the more we are influenced by our surroundings. Children are less influenced in this way.

QUESTION.— What pains do you take to make sure that the subject is in a normal condition?

Dr. MACDONALD.— We cannot be too particular at first. I do not believe in being too fine at the beginning. That comes afterward. I measure the density of the atmosphere. I have the same kind of light. I use the same chair and the same things. We should have the conditions the same, as far as possible.

QUESTION.— But take the antecedent conditions. Don't you suppose that the nervous condition of the people here is different from what it was when we first came into this room?

Dr. MACDONALD.— Not so changed as to affect the value of measurements.

Adjourned at 12.30 P.M.

ELEVENTH SESSION.

Wednesday night, May 29.

The evening session was held in the United Church, and was called to order at eight o'clock by the President. Prayer was offered by Rev. W. W. McLane, D.D., of New Haven.

The chairman of the Executive Committee reported a change in rules in regard to the General Secretary.

On motion the report was adopted, and the change is embodied in the rules printed on page xiii.

Mr. F. H. Wines, chairman of the Committee on Organization, reported for that committee. On motion the report was adopted as read (page ix), and the persons proposed were declared elected.

On motion it was voted that any vacancies in the list of Corresponding Secretaries should be filled by the Executive Committee. On motion it was voted that, if persons named as Corresponding Secretaries or members of standing committees do not accept by the first of October, their places shall then be declared vacant, and shall be filled by the Executive Committee.

The subject of the evening, Reformatory Work, was then taken up.

President PAINE.— There are many different kinds of institutions, and it has been said that the worst home is better than the best institution. That is a curious overstatement of a partial truth. I suppose it was said in reference to pauper and neglected children, and has no reference to the problem that we deal with to-night. It was interesting to observe in the Massachusetts report that the old State institution at Monson for pauper and neglected children is reduced to such small numbers that on the first of July it closes absolutely. But it was for children who required no "treatment" at all. But, when we deal with reformatory institutions, they deal with a much smaller class of boys, chiefly boys who do need the wisest possible treatment; and, therefore, we shall listen with interest to what will be said to-night on the subject. I remember Mr. Letchworth, whose absence we all regret, once said to me that, when people talk about bad boys condemned to institutions and likely to be lost for life, he always thinks of the institution as of a wonderful machine, with huge jaws that open and close mechanically; and that, when boys are running about, some of them run into those jaws and some escape. He said he believed every man could remember things that he had done as a boy that, if he had been detected, would have sent him to an institution. I can say Amen to that, and I believe every man here can. I will not speak for the ladies. Boys do get into such trouble that they need to be sent to reformatory institutions. But it is with pride that I claim that the reformatories for juveniles are now doing splendid work. I believe that Massachusetts can claim credit for having taken such interest in this matter as to have had a State Board which has done devoted and successful work, and that has been represented in this Conference by large numbers. I do not know whether any other State sends so many. But I do not remember that the great city of Boston has ever had any of its representatives here. We are dealing with a large number of paupers and criminals in every direction, and we have had some very painful experiences in Boston. An effort has been made there to reform abuses and to change the three-headed committee to a single man, and we are waiting to hear of the appointment of one man as the head of the nine city institutions. But I will not dwell on painful things at home. I will rather introduce Mr. Nibecker, of Glen Mills, Pa., Superintendent of the House of Refuge.

Mr. Nibecker read a paper on "The Influence of Children in their Homes after Institution Life" (page 216).

A paper on "The Obligations of the State to Juvenile Delinquents" was read by Mr. W. G. Fairbanks, of Middletown, Conn. (page 238).

Mr. Nibecker said that the paper on "Progress shown in Pictures," which had been announced in the programme, was dependent on lantern slides, but could not be given, as the proprietors of the church would not allow pictures to be exhibited there.

A paper on "Remedial Work in Behalf of our Youth" was read by Rev. M. McG. Dana (page 230).

An address on "Relief Work in Nebraska during the Drought" was given by Rev. Luther P. Ludden.

ADDRESS OF REV. L. P. LUDDEN, OF NEBRASKA.

On the 26th of July, 1894, an almost unprecedented hot wind swept across our fair State from the south, bringing complete destruction to the then growing crops. No State had a better outlook for an abundant harvest than Nebraska just before this hot wind. With the mercury ranging on an average at 106 degrees, and the wind blowing forty-eight miles an hour, the ground quite dry, no growing crop could stand it. This hot wind was followed by a continued and protracted drought, cutting off everything. In the frontier portions of our State and the more newly settled part the homesteaders, the people who had spent their all in trying to establish a home, found their livelihood from every means of support cut off, being, practically speaking, without credit. In the older settled portions of our State the people were able to care for themselves; but in that part of our State commencing in the south-western corner and going diagonally to the north-eastern corner, a district of one hundred and fifty miles by two hundred miles long, we have a population of nearly 500,000. One-fifth of that number by this hot wind were left without means of supporting themselves. Nebraska could well have taken care of them but for the inhibition in our constitution prohibiting us from bonding the State for more than $100,000, and that limit had been passed.

Beginning with the 1st of October, we began to feed the people of this territory. During the first few months the people struggled as bravely and faithfully as any people could rather than take aid for their families; but one by one their supplies gave out, and they were compelled to call for aid. They were given food, clothing, and fuel. We believe our work stands as a marvel in the history of charity work. We started without a dollar; but the great sympathetic heart of the American people was stirred from East to West as the appeals went forth, and help came in abundance.

One of the most serious questions before us as a commission was how to prevent duplication in caring for these people, and at the same time to prevent those who were not needy or worthy from

receiving supplies. This was a great problem, when you look at the size of the territory to be covered and the number of people to be cared for. Our commission took the position that they were a clearing-house of charity. We organized every county as follows: a county central committee of seven or nine, as the people of the county desired; a subcommittee or visiting committee in every school district or voting precinct, consisting of three, whose work was to visit the families, find out their needs, and report in writing to their county committees. We aimed to keep ten days' supply of food in the hands of the county central relief committees all the time. Every distribution, all the details of the work, were reported accurately to us; and the goods were receipted for with the same promptness as if we were buying and selling. Receipts were taken for everything, and upon the written report of two or three of the visiting committee only would supplies be sent. Thus people were prevented from going from one district to another or from one county into another and obtaining supplies. In this partially settled district everybody knows everybody's business, and it was no trouble for the visitors to know the needy. We took care of these people from October until February 7, with voluntary contributions of money, provisions, and clothing. It was not until that date that we received our first appropriation by our legislature. Owing to the liberality of the railroads, we were enabled to move supplies from any point in the United States to any part of our territory, through all companies.

During this Conference we have heard it remarked that "corporations have no souls"; but corporations have a soul larger than most people think,— so large that the average individual never sees it. The freight hauled over just one road from Chicago into our territory amounted to hundreds of thousands of pounds and thousands upon thousands of bushels of grain, and yet not a dollar of expense to the people of our State; and what we say of this one road we can say of all of them at that time. We sent out in one week as many as 306 cars of supplies of various kinds. We still have to care for these people, and will until they gather their harvests. We distributed a million and a half packages of garden seeds, and all through Nebraska to-day we have beautiful gardens. We are about four weeks ahead of this country in the matter of vegetables. A large acreage has been planted, and our grain is doing nicely; and there will be an enormous crop of corn, provided hot winds do not take us this year.

Yesterday's New York papers stated that there was a storm centre in Nebraska; while this morning's papers show that the thermometer was at 98 and the hot winds were blowing, scorching the corn and withering the crops.

We claim to have done our work systematically and upon the charity organization principles. We did not give to the individual

as a commission, but did our work solely through the county organizations. If a man failed in doing his work under us, we removed him as quickly as possible. In this respect perhaps we have an advantage over the charity organization societies in many of our cities. We never hesitated to remove an incompetent individual. The principles of charity organization worked splendidly in caring for a large number of people. No matter what the newspaper reports have been, not an individual starved, not an individual went without food; and the people are better clothed to-day than they have ever been, because all New England, New York, and all the Eastern States just seemed to empty their wardrobes into Nebraska. The great express companies gave free billing for all clothing. It would surprise you to see the amount they carried, if given in figures. The express cars came to Lincoln day after day, loaded to their roofs with clothing. In one county they begged very hard for shoes, and we sent them a box; and, when it was opened by the central committee, they found it contained forty pairs of patent-leather shoes, and you can see farmers to-day in Nebraska ploughing with patent-leather shoes on. A great many evening dress suits were sent, and I know you would be amused if you could pass through Nebraska and see the farmers wearing these dress suits. We were able as a commission to meet every just demand that was made upon us but three. There were three individuals out of the State who asked us to get them wives; but, with all of our office force and with all of the needy in our State, we were unable to meet these demands, and were compelled to give it up as a demand that we were unable to supply.

Many of you read the cry that went out through the East that people were starving and supplies were wasted. I want to say that no supplies were wasted and nobody starved. In the closing of the free billing on food supplies the railroads said that for all the supplies we were able to put on track up to a certain time they would give us free billing. By the liberal use of the telegraph — and this service was placed at our disposal both by the Western Union and the Postal — we were enabled to put several hundred cars on track in a few hours; and, owing to the slackness in shipment of general freight, these supplies came forward in a few days, and it did give us a large amount on track at Lincoln for one week. We were compelled to work early and late from December until April. I took my seat at my desk at five o'clock in the morning, and left it near midnight every night.

Everything we received was sent forward to its destination, if there was a mark or anything upon it to indicate where it was destined for. In our work we tried to carry out the wish of every donor, but many cars came without tags or directions; and they would have to wait for a letter to come, and this was the one case where cars were left standing on the track. Nothing was wasted. If

they contained perishable goods, we distributed them. To show you the falsity of the report that we had carloads of perishable supplies wasted: At one time we had ten cars of clothing, fourteen cars of molasses, two cars of rice, one car of sugar, two cars of salt, one car of sauer-kraut, and several cars of flour. Now, no one wanted a car of clothing to feed their people on, neither would any community be pleased to feed them on just a car of rock salt. We were compelled therefore to break up these cars into commodity cars containing equitable portions of each of the supplies, suitable to the needs of the community where the car was to be sent. The report said that our car of sauer-kraut was wasted. When this donation reached us, I had had four Boston papers sent me, finding fault that we had allowed this whole car of sauer-kraut to waste. We found, when this car reached us, that one of the barrels had burst; but, bless you, it was not wasted. Why, we had dozens of Russian families hovering around the warehouse, just living on the smell of the sauer-kraut. Then the report was circulated that we allowed four carloads of potatoes to freeze while standing on the tracks. We never had four carloads or one carload sent to us at Lincoln, nor did we allow any to freeze. One hundred and fifty sacks sent by some one in Pennsylvania froze before they reached Chicago, and were frozen still harder when they reached Lincoln. But we sent them out immediately in small lots, and the people drew the frost out of them with cold water and were glad indeed to get them to use even in that condition.

We investigated every complaint, and it was easy for our visiting committee to reach any section of the county in a very short time. Many letters were sent East with appeals for certain families, but our visiting committees often found that there were no such families. Our record as a commission stands complete as one of the grandest works of the nineteenth century.

If the people of the East had only sent their money in one channel, we know that it would have gone to the proper places, and accomplished far more than in the way it was sent forward. Our report soon to be published will show every single donation received, and from whom we received it, also the disposition made of supplies. We did not give cash to any one. We gave them coal, clothing, and food. Our distribution averaged about one sack of flour, one sack of corn-meal, four pounds of oatmeal, five pounds of rice, six pounds of beans, six pounds of hominy; and, if there was an aged or sick person in a family, we gave tea, coffee, and sugar. This amount was supposed to be given every ten days. We gave no orders for food. We did not believe in the order system. It is too easy to convert the orders into something else. A man receiving an order for such supplies would be likely to say to the merchant, "Give me the flour and the meal and the beans: the old woman can get along with that; and, for the rest of it, give me tobacco."

Thus the great work has gone forward,— a hundred thousand peo-

ple cared for, and hardly a single dollar expended save for office expenses and stenographers, of whom we had nine; and I have dictated myself over 22,000 letters. We had to buy coal, large quantities of it. We did not have to buy clothing, and the people gave us hundreds and thousands of carloads of grain; and up to the first day of May all of this grain was hauled by the railroads free, and laid down at the doors of the needy people. They carried coal free for us; and we could buy the coal at the mines from 50 cents to $1.75 per ton, depending upon the quality and mine from which we bought it, the railroads hauling it free for us, all the expense to us, therefore, being the cost of the coal. They could hardly have laid down the same for less than $7 a ton, while hard coal is worth $10 a ton. So $1 in the hands of the commission, in the purchasing of coal, was worth $7 in the hands of the private individual.

QUESTION.— Were there any solicitations made in the East?

Mr. LUDDEN.— Not by the State nor by the governor. The State Relief Commission made no appeal officially for help. The commission never wrote its name on a single scrap of paper for the purpose of soliciting. So careful were we that we did not have a card printed with the names of the members of the commission on, for fear some one might take it from the office, and write an indorsement on the back of it. Neither did we allow a letter-head without some message written on it to go out of our office. Other individuals spent a large amount of money and accomplished considerable good. The several church denominations did good work for their people. Individuals could get free transportation only through the Commission; and this enabled us to keep a very close check on all supplies going to the needy of the several counties, and to prevent duplication.

QUESTION.— How did it happen that the people needed so much clothing?

Mr. LUDDEN.— Well, they had no crop, many of them, the year before; and they had been unable to buy suitable clothing, and some of them had not been in this country long, and had no credit. Their clothing after two years' wear was pretty well destroyed.

President PAINE.— From Mr. Ludden's account it would seem that the principles of the charity organization have taken pretty deep root.

Adjourned at 10.30 P.M.

TWELFTH SESSION.

Thursday morning, May 30.

The morning session was called to order at ten o'clock by the President, in the Alumni Hall. Prayer was offered by Rev. Justin E. Twitchell, D.D., of New Haven.

The Reports from States were continued, — Alabama, Utah, Wisconsin, Ontario.

Mr. F. H. WINES. — There are several items of business that should be attended to. I move that the Executive Committee be allowed to file a list of Corresponding Secretaries with the editor.

Voted.

Mr. WINES. — I move that Mr. Luther P. Ludden be added to the list of Secretaries.

Voted.

Mr. WINES. — I wish to offer a resolution with reference to the death of Hon. George S. Robinson. I do not wish to make any speech, though Mr. Robinson was a warm personal friend of mine many years ago. His service with relation to this Conference makes it an imperative duty, a duty which I perform with pleasure, to honor his memory here; and, that we may place upon our records a testimonial of respect, I move the adoption of the following resolution: —

Whereas the National Conference of Charities and Correction has been informed of the death of the Hon. George S. Robinson, of Illinois, formerly president of the Illinois State Board of Public Charities, and the first President of this Conference at its session in Chicago in 1879, therefore,—

Resolved, That we hereby place upon permanent record our appreciation of the admirable personal qualities of our deceased friend, especially of his integrity and kindness, and of the service which he rendered to this body in its original organization.

Resolved, That, as a mark of our appreciation and of our sympathy with his widow in her affliction, the General Secretary be, and hereby is, directed to send to her a copy of these resolutions.

Mr. F. B. SANBORN, Massachusetts. — Those of us who remember the early days of this Conference, when we were not overcrowded with attendance on our meetings, will recollect the excellent qualities of Mr. Robinson. His character, his presence, and his whole conduct with respect to the Conference, as well as his management of other interests placed in his hands by the State of Illinois, entitle

him to all that has been said in the resolution offered by Mr. Wines. I wish to bear this testimony concerning an old and valued friend.

The resolution was then unanimously adopted.

Mr. A. O. Wright read the following tribute to Hon. H. H. Giles, and asked that it be spread upon the records, which was unanimously granted: —

The founders of the Conference are passing away. The latest of our honored dead is Hon. H. H. Giles, of Wisconsin, who died May 10, 1895, at his home in Madison, Wis., after an illness of about two months, aged seventy-five years.

Mr. Giles was a native of North New Salem, Mass. Early in life he had experiences in connection with the Canadian rebellion — which he aided, like so many American citizens — and as an itinerant lecturer on electricity. After he settled in Wisconsin, he was conspicuous as a temperance worker. He was elected to the State Senate, and was an active political leader, though often independent of party ties.

But his best work was in connection with public charities. When the first State hospital for the insane was established in 1860, he was appointed a trustee, and remained such till he was appointed a member of the State Board of Charities and Reform by Governor Fairchild, when that board was organized in 1870. He was the first president of that Board, and continued a member till it was abolished in 1891,— a period of twenty-one years. During that time he shared in all the varied and beneficent activities of that Board, and especially in the great improvements secured by them in the management of jails and poorhouses, and in the radical change in the method of caring for the chronic insane which was created and carried out by the Wisconsin State Board of Charities and Reform.

On the Board his counsels were usually wise, and in the field his actions as inspector were always characterized by courage and common sense. He took a leading part in several public investigations conducted by the Board. He helped to shape legislation on most of the subjects in which the Board was interested. But a great deal of the best work done by him, as well as by his colleagues, has never been made a matter of record, consisting, as it did, of fruitful conversations with officers of institutions leading to improvements, for which the officers were allowed to have the credit. Some most delicate investigations required to break up rooted abuses and to purify institutions of gross evils were carried out by him almost single-handed, which were never published in our reports or in the newspapers for reason of public policy. At the end of this period of twenty-one years of the work of the State Board of Charities and Reform the public institutions of Wisconsin, both State and local, had been greatly improved by new methods and higher ideals. For this work Mr. Giles deserved his full share of credit with the rest of the Board.

He was one of the founders of the National Conference of Charities and Correction, which began with a meeting of the State Boards of Wisconsin, Illinois, and Michigan. He attended nearly every Conference from the first, and took an active part in them, serving frequently on committees and contributing to the

papers and discussions. He was elected President at St. Paul, and presided at Omaha. And in these relations of officer and member he contributed toward shaping the influences which have made this Conference so valuable to the nation and the world.

Mr. F. B. SANBORN. — I think that we ought not to let this opportunity pass without further notice. My acquaintance with Mr. Giles began with the first meeting of the National Conference in 1874. On that occasion Mr. Giles, Mr. Elmore, Mrs. Pitt Lynde, were present, together with less than twenty representatives of the State Boards. The State of Wisconsin sent the largest delegation, and I remember the impression that Mr. Giles made was never effaced. He had a singular combination of qualities. That disinterestedness and self-effacement which made him and his colleagues carry on an excellent work without much blowing of trumpets was combined with extreme directness of statement, of which we have had many instances in this Conference. Some rather vapid performances by persons not members of the Conference have been brought to an end by about ten words from Mr. Giles, which could have been translated into no other dialect of the civilized world to produce the same effect. While he had a strong sense of the importance of maintaining local responsibility, which is the great achievement of the Wisconsin State Board, together with adherence to the general policy of the State, he had also a sufficient sense of the importance of his position as representing the State of Wisconsin. He once went to the State hospital of Wisconsin to inspect it, and the superintendent was absent. The assistant superintendent was out on the grounds with a large number of patients. To him Mr. Giles expressed the wish to go into the hospital, and inspect it. The gentleman declined to permit him. Mr. Giles remonstrated; but the gentleman again declined, saying, "I am the assistant superintendent, and have the authority at present." "Well, I am the State of Wisconsin," retorted Mr. Giles, and marched in and performed his duty. Mr. Giles was a friend and promoter of every good cause.

Mr. WINES. — An obituary notice is not the place where one would look for humor; and yet humor is so closely allied to pathos that Mr. Faber, the author of the delightful hymns which we all sing, has said that there is not a single aid to grace like a sense of humor. We had a remarkable instance of the closeness of humor and pathos in the personal reminiscences given us by Myron Reed of our friend Mr. McCulloch, which are fresh in the minds of those who heard them. Mr. Giles had a very keen humor, and Mr. Sanborn's statement with regard to his directness and his ability to "squelch" a tiresome, prolix speaker calls up an instance at Louisville. A superintendent of a reformatory institution was describing the work of his institution at great length, going into minute particulars as to the furnishing of the dormitories, etc., and we were all very tired, when

Mr. Giles's gigantic and remarkable figure rose to its full height, and, addressing the chair, he said, "Mr. President, that doesn't interest us: it doesn't interest *me*," and he sat down. Mr. Sanborn, who was sitting next to me, leaned over, and whispered, "What a handy man Mr. Giles is to have round!"

But it is not to his personal qualities that I would refer. We all respected and admired and loved him. I wish to call attention again to the fact that to Mr. Giles and to Mr. Elmore more than to any two other men in the United States the existence of this Conference is due. The first time I ever met Mr. Giles was in Wisconsin. The State commissioners for public charities had invited the State commissioners from Illinois to come to Milwaukee to make a tour with them of the State charitable and correctional institutions of Wisconsin. We spent several days in their society; and we derived so much benefit from intercourse and acquaintance and sympathy on that occasion that the State commissioners of Illinois returned the invitation, and requested the State commissioners from Wisconsin to make a tour of the institutions in Illinois. We met in Chicago, and that was the historical origin of the National Conference of Charities and Correction. The Social Science Association afterward invited the State Boards to meet with them; and for a number of years we did meet with them at Saratoga and New York, until, finally, this Conference had grown so large — so much larger than the Social Science Association — that, as Mr. Elmore said, it was time that the tail should cease wagging the dog, and proposed that we should form an association of our own, and in 1879 we met in Chicago for the first time separately, and Mr. George S. Robinson whom we have just honored presided. It was there that the National Conference as a separate organization was born. Here to-day we have honored the two men who presided over the origin of the Conference of Charities and Correction.

Mr. Sanborn reminded the Conference that since the last session Dr. D. Hack Tuke, of England, a man eminent in some of the special subjects to which the Conference is devoted, had also died.

The report of the Committee on Immigration and Interstate Migration was taken up; and the report of the chairman, Dr. C. S. Hoyt, was read (page 245)

A paper on "Interstate Migration" was read by Mr. H. H. Hart (page 248).

DISCUSSION ON IMMIGRATION.

Mr. Harvey J. Hollister, Michigan.— In travelling through England a few years ago, I found organized societies for the purpose of facilitating emigration from the congested districts in Ireland; and

it was not so much a question of the character of the emigrants as a desire to get rid of them that actuated them. To go still further, in the little republic of Switzerland that we admire as doing so much to lift up men, I found this fact to be established: that a systematic effort and concentration of effort was being made to deliver that little country from all men and women who were unable to take care of themselves, and their passage was paid to America for that purpose. It does seem as though that which has been suggested by our chairman should be the rule adopted by this country through its agents and consuls abroad in regard to this matter. We certainly cannot take in this army of imbecile and dependent people, and take care of them in connection with our own and do justice to all. We must surely look after our own household first.

Mr. SANBORN.— If Mr. Hart had gone into the matter, he would have ascertained that the persons who make what we call interstate migrations are at least fifty per cent., and probably seventy-five per cent., recent immigrants. The recent immigrant is more likely to perform this feat of going from State to State than the native of the country. This is true not only of those who deceive the vigilance at the seaport, but of a considerable number who have honestly sought and found work in some part of the country, and have been afterward deprived of it; and, with that ignorance and sanguine temperament which belong to so many of those immigrants, without much knowledge of where they are going to bring up, they pass on to the next State or city. The appeal to the national government to pass laws on this subject should be based, in part, upon the fact that the national government has now undertaken to regulate immigration in all its departments. Whenever the national bureau of immigration undertakes to investigate this subject, it will find that the evils do not disclose themselves at the port of debarkation. They are to be found as immigration distributes itself over the country. I think the national government will be called upon to meet this difficulty through laws. I cannot think of any process which will be in the least degree effective as legislation unless the national government takes it up. As to Dr. Hoyt's paper, I differ with him on some points. I differ also with persons in my own part of the country who are now pushing the subject of restricting immigration. You can restrict the tendency of water to run down hill and you can build a wall as high as the tower of Babel, but the nature of hydrodynamics will carry the water to its proper level. You may restrict, but you can no more prevent the entrance into this country, so long as it remains industrially attractive, of large numbers of persons, than you can prevent the Connecticut River from running into the Sound. What you can do is to take advantage of these ebbs and flows of public sentiment, and then adopt practical measures like that which Dr. Hoyt has suggested, of consular inspection. You can do more. The evils are derived largely from the failure of our

own officials, for political reasons, to enforce our own laws. If the naturalization laws of this country were enforced, fifty per cent. of the actual evils of which we complain would disappear. Why are the laws not enforced? Because the political situation calls for votes; and, in the attempts to get votes, the naturalization laws are practically nullified. That is one of the examples of States nullifying the laws of the nation year after year. It seems as if people so sensible as the American people would long ago have settled on measures for restricting emigration at the ports of embarkation. The persons who have studied this subject have recommended it again and again. It is the only means by which you can properly sift the populations which tend to flow to this country. The most vigilant officers cannot detect on landing the persons who are undesirable: it must be done in Europe. I hope every person who hears me, if he agrees with me, will endeavor to influence Congress to see that some system of strict consular inspection is established.

Prof. BLACKMAN.— Is it desirable that members of this Conference should work with the Immigration League?

Dr. HOYT.— I think it is desirable and proper to co-operate with any society working in this direction. Their particular remedy is the educational test. I think it is worth consideration, but it would shut out many desirable immigrants and would keep out some undesirable.

The report of the Committee on Training Schools for Nurses, Miss Anna C. Maxwell, New York, chairman, was next in order. A paper was read by Miss Linda Richards, Superintendent Training School of Brooklyn Homœopathic Hospital, on "The Moral Influence of Trained Nurses in Hospitals" (page 256).

An address on "Children in Hospitals" was given by Miss L. W. Quintard, Superintendent Connecticut Training School (page 275).

A paper, "A Plea for Trained Nurses for Almshouse Hospitals," was read by Dr. G. H. M. Rowe, Boston (page 276).

A paper on "The Trained Nurse" by Miss S. F. Palmer, of Washington, was read in her absence by Miss Diana C. Kimber (page 259).

A paper on "Special Relief to Sick Children in Connection with St. John's Guild" was read by Miss Maria S. Robinson, New York (page 269).

A paper on "District Nursing in London" was read by Miss Diana C. Kimber (page 273).

A paper on "Provident Medical Associations," by Dr. W. H. Prescott, Boston, was read in his absence by title (page 285)

Dr. Irving Fisher, superintendent of the Presbyterian Hospital, New York, was invited to speak.

Dr. FISHER.— It is very pleasant to stand again before this Conference. It is three years since I have been with you, and I have missed you; but the exigencies of my work have been such that it has been impossible for me to attend.

The State almshouse of Tewksbury has been pleasantly spoken of, and it is a pleasure to me to confirm the statements made by Miss Richards and Dr. Rowe regarding the moral influence of the trained nurse in the almshouse. I feel that the credit is due in a large measure to the young lady that I had at the head of our hospital for women. Under the influence of her enthusiasm and with her help we established our training school work, requiring that the nurses should have a certain course of studies and attend certain lectures which we could give. When we reorganized our hospital for men, the young woman expressed the wish that she might have something to do with the nursing there. We had had only men as nurses. I was somewhat in doubt as to the prudence of that step, considering the class of patients we had,— men known to be the most dissolute it is possible for men to be. Many of them I had had charge of when I was physician to the prison in Boston Harbor. Profanity and obscene remarks were constantly heard, though we did all we could to suppress it. I therefore thought it would be hardly prudent for women to go in; but the young lady was so enthusiastic and confident that we finally made the trial with two or three young ladies from the woman's hospital who were quiet in their manner and showed excellent sense and ability and attended strictly to business. A few weeks showed to me and to all associated with me that we need not go back to the old way; that the nurses were in the men's hospital to stay. There was a marked change in the moral influence and atmosphere of those wards. The patients showed a higher moral sense in all their behavior and language, and there was a sense of care and cleanliness and helpfulness which we had never experienced in those wards before. We soon found that the wards where we had women as nurses were the wards where the most satisfactory work was done, where the doctors themselves were taking the most interest, not simply because there were women in the ward, but because the patients were taken better care of and better results were found. It is a pleasure to confirm the statements that have been made to this effect.

The work at the almshouse has increased, and the attendants in the insane department for women have been brought under the general training of the head of the training-school, who requires of them that they shall follow certain courses of study; and my successor, Dr. Howard, assures me that there has been an elevation in the class of work which is being done by the attendants. The insane are much more carefully observed, and their ailments earlier brought to the

attention of the doctor. The work is certainly enlarging along many lines, and I believe it is possible to establish it in every similar institution.

President PAINE.— We are grateful to Miss Maxwell and the ladies of her committee for their contribution to the Conference. This comes nearer to my conception of the highest form of civilization than anything I know,— to see these ladies in their devoted work, beginning in hospitals and then going out all through the desperately wretched parts of the city as ministering angels.

Mrs. LINCOLN, Boston.— I think this marks an era in Massachusetts when the physician of Boston's city hospital comes here to advocate the nursing of our poor in the almshouse hospital by trained nurses. Dr. Rowe mentioned Tewskbury. We all know what we owe to Dr. Fisher for what Tewksbury is. We have heard the question discussed here of paid and unpaid State Boards. Up to the present time we have had difficulty in making our city institutions what we would like to have them, and they are under the government of a paid board. Tewksbury and Bridgewater are under the care of unpaid trustees, and one reason why our State institutions are what we want seems to have some intimate relation to that fact. Hospital nursing in England has been spoken of. I would like to say one word about the Birmingham Infirmary, presided over by a matron who is a worthy successor of Florence Nightingale. They take but eighteen probationers a year to be trained; and there are six hundred applicants to take those places, which shows that in England the women are willing to go into the almshouse and care for almshouse patients. It is a splendid instance of how a workhouse infirmary could be managed. I wish we could have such a one in Boston.

Adjourned at 12.45 P.M.

LAST SESSION.

Thursday, May 30.

The last session was called to order by the President at 8 P.M. Prayer was offered by Dr. Brown, of New Haven.

The report of the Executive Committee was made by Mr. Wines with reference to the resolution offered by Mr. Savage. The motion was presented with a little change in wording, and by vote was adopted as follows: —

Resolved, That the matter of the desertion of children by their parents, to which the attention of this Conference has been called, is one which merits special study. The Conference therefore urges upon the State Boards of Public

Charities, all other organizations, public or private, interested in work for children, the necessity for collecting such statistical and other information upon this subject as may be practicable, with a view to check the growth of this great evil.

Resolved, further, That the General Secretary be, and is hereby, instructed to transmit a copy of these resolutions to the State Boards and to the proper officials of each of the cities in the United States with a population of not less than 100,000 inhabitants.

The following resolution was offered by Mr. John M. Glenn, and was unanimously adopted: —

Resolved, That the President, Treasurer, and General Secretary be authorized to increase the annual membership fee to $2.50 per year, provided satisfactory arrangements can be made to furnish to each member of the Conference a periodical devoted to the interests of charities and correction without additional charge.

Voted.

President PAINE. — One of the pleasures in coming to New Haven is that we have met in the shade of this superb university, and have used that privilege that President Dwight gave us so generously. We have gone in and out of the university almost as if we were students. It has been a great pleasure to meet some of the professors and students, and now I am going to ask Professor William H. Brewer to speak to us upon "The Relation of Universities to Charity and to Reformatory Work."

Professor Brewer's address will be found on page 143.

A paper on "The Tramp Problem: What it is and What to do with it," was read by Professor J. J. McCook, of Hartford (page 288).

President PAINE. — It is the glory of scientific charity that it can meet emergencies well. We shall hear from Mr. J. F. Jackson, of St. Paul, on the way in which the Hinckley fire in Minnesota was met.

THE HINCKLEY FIRE.

BY MR. J. F. JACKSON.

Forest fires are frequent in dry seasons. The dry leaves and twigs are ignited in many ways, — by sparks from locomotive engines, the carelessness of hunters, lumbermen, and frontiersmen, or the recklessness of tramps. Destructive fires have been considered a sort of necessary evil, until our legislature of 1895 passed a stringent law to hold the evil in check. The danger is especially great where the pine timber has been cut, because only the bodies of trees are removed, leaving the boughs full of resin as food for a forest fire.

Most of these fires do little serious damage. The fire of which I am asked to tell you this evening occurred in the timbered district of which Hinckley was the chief town and the point of most serious devastation. Hinckley is at the junction of the Eastern Minnesota and the St. Paul & Duluth Railroads, and about half-way between those terminal cities. The drought in Nebraska, that we heard about last evening, extended also over Minnesota; and these forest fires began to run early in July. They grew in frequency and intensity as the season advanced. It is impossible to give you an idea of the size of this devastated district. If I were to say that it covered a thousand square miles, I could prove it. If I said fifteen hundred, you could hardly say that it was not true. One fire ran into another, each adding to the intensity, until with the growing wind there was a fury of flames. Hinckley people watched the oncoming storm in the south-west, and made such preparation to meet the fire as they could. They thought, so long as a certain district between them and the fire was unburned, they were safe. Every possible effort was put forth to protect that district. Finally, it became evident that there was serious danger. The fire reached the town that thought itself in safety, and swept it clean. There was only one place of safety at Hinckley, and a drunken man saved many lives by warning them to flee to the large gravel pit. There were two locomotives on the Eastern Minnesota Railroad. The two engineers in charge of those trains had the hardest task. They knew that upon their action depended hundreds of lives. If they waited too long before starting, the whole would perish. If they started sooner than absolutely necessary, some would be lost who might have been saved. I never knew men in such a predicament. At the right moment they started, going through smoke, fire, and over burning culverts and bridges, until they reached Duluth with fifteen hundred refugees. A St. Paul and Duluth train had no sooner discharged its passengers and some refugees in a place of safety than the fire swept over it, and in an instant the cars were burned as though they had been tinder-boxes. No one perished on the train except a few Chinamen who were afraid, and got under the seats. In the north of Hinckley one man saw a wagon with three barrels of water, and thought there was a chance to save his family; and he put his little boy into one barrel, his wife and babe behind another, and threw water over them till morning. A couple of fellows came along, and climbed into the barrels, and, unfortunately, saved their lives to the great jeopardy of the little family. The clearing there was four acres in extent, and there were 163 bodies found on that four acres. People were stricken like leaves from a tree. Many saw their friends fall, and were utterly unable to help them. This occurred the evening of Saturday, Sept. 1, 1894. Sunday our governor sent food and equipment to Pine City, twelve miles toward St. Paul, from Hinckley, whence four hundred had fled.

The next day the mayor of St. Paul called a corps of men, and they established a relief committee; and this committee appointed the secretary of the Associated Charities to see to their supplies, and to do everything that was possible for the sufferers at Pine City. I am proud to say the secretaries of the Associated Charities of Minneapolis and Duluth were also called to do important relief work.

The loss of life was nearly 450, about one-sixth of the population. The property loss, aside from damage to timber, was about $750,000. Approximately, $220,000 was expended in relief. Nearly every dollar went to those who really suffered by the fire, nothing to interlopers or those not in need.

It was brought about in this way. In the first place every one was obliged to register, giving names and ages of entire family, place of residence, amount of property, loss, insurance, etc. Before time for rebuilding we had lists of all insurance in force in the district September 1. In the registration office at Pine City there was at my right hand a man who spoke Swedish and at my left one who spoke German. They knew 98 per cent. of the people in that district, so we knew exactly how each sufferer was situated and extent of injuries. From the first tickets were issued to provide clothing and meals at an improvised boarding-house, for lodgings in tents and public buildings, for hand tools to farmers with which to begin again on the land; after some houses were built furniture outfits were issued, varying with size of family. The form of the tickets varied from time to time.

In the second daily report to the St. Paul committee I telegraphed for sheeting, towels, and other things necessary to keep the women occupied. They seemed at first dazed; and, as they came to realize their loss, one or two being gone from nearly every family, their property all gone, unless they had something to occupy them, they would have left the country and the equities in their land which we were trying to hold for them.

There were so few whose injuries needed hospital treatment that they were sent to the city hospitals September 3. From that date nothing was given to any one without an order from the registration office. Thus imposition and unnecessary expenses were almost impossible. The commission had its own stock of clothing and provisions, and, when headquarters could be moved to Hinckley, building material and necessary furniture were added.

A State commission was formed September 5, which had entire charge of all relief work. They made plans to re-establish these people in their homes and to secure an extension of contracts for these men, who were all poor. Not one of the farmers held property on a clear title. Every man, who previously had a home and who would remain, was given a house 16 x 24, one and one-half or two stories high, according to the family. Those who could them-

selves build had a cash allowance for their labor. There were some squatters who had built on land belonging to others, and they were given lumber to rebuild their shanties. After personal consultation and investigation, we provided houses, furniture, provisions, and clothes, but the intention was to leave no man better off than he was before the fire; and, except with a very few of the very poor, that was secured. Many left the country; and to those we gave transportation and a cash allowance, varying with the size of the family and the probable need of further medical assistance.

We worked on a friendly basis with the local authorities, who did splendid service. The railroad companies furnished free transportation. They treated us admirably. The discriminating issuance of local and final transportation, the replies to telegrams, and letters as to the dead and living, was no small task the first two weeks.

The final results were: First, that the aid which the rich and poor gave was expended generously, and this emergency became a great bond between the rich and the poor. The fire sufferers appreciated the help which they received and the kindness which was shown them.

Second, this land is now largely cleared. Those who desire to farm can easily clear the land and get good farming. Most of those who had land and saved any of their family returned. One man, who with his own and his brother's family numbered thirteen, was left alone; and of course he could not stay. We made him a cash payment, and he returned to his former home.

So far as pauperism is concerned, I believe there is no more pauperism than before. If careful work, if conscientious, loving care, will secure it, these fire sufferers will become again an independent, prosperous people.

The following letters were read by the President: —

Letter to the President from C. S. Loch, Secretary.

SOCIETY FOR ORGANIZING CHARITABLE RELIEF
AND REPRESSING MENDICITY,
15 BUCKINGHAM ST., ADELPHI, LONDON, W.C.,
May 16, 1895.

Dear Mr. Paine,— I must thank you for your very kind and appreciative letter. It would have given me great pleasure to take part in the National Conference of Charities and Correction which is to be held this month at New Haven, but my work just now keeps me in London. The pleasure of paying a visit to America, to which I have often looked forward, is, however, only deferred for a short time, I hope; and next year perhaps we may meet on the other side of the water.

Charity organization is so close a bond of friendship and good will that we feel that, if we go to America, we only leave our friends here to find other friends

there; and we know that, though the details of the problem are different in the very different conditions of east and west and town and country, the principles for which we are working are the same everywhere.

These principles seem clear to us, though we have not yet perhaps ourselves learned how far they reach and how they cover the whole field of charity and social work. But the world at large has not yet recognized them, though they may be found in the best books with which most of us are familiar; and may be drawn from the daily experience of life within our own homes and outside our doors.

Whether we have to help a brother or any near relation, or to pick our way through the difficulties of the random career of some applicant for assistance, we realize that we cannot do much, or rather that we are almost certain to fail in whatever we attempt, if we do not know all the facts, and if we do not have at our disposal complete verified information instead of mere surmise and conjecture. We recognize how we may be misled by that account of the changes and chances of his life that a witness will relate who is moved by a kindly benevolence toward his own frailties or by a large self-pity for his own mistakes and misdemeanors. He will not actually mistell his tale. Certain main facts — the hard mountain ridges of his career — will remain prominent; but, nevertheless, he will color and gloss many of the critical junctures and occurrences of his past life. He is not flagrantly dishonest, but he is laxly human. He knows that the truth is best, but he dislikes or fears the heart-prick or exposure that it will entail; for he may have no real design to alter his way of life, but may hope rather to get from his questioner some temporary convenience or advantage without being put to the fatiguing task of self-renovation by any strong exertion of the will. Our first principle, then, is to obtain full and accurate knowledge; and this lies at the root of all worthy charitable work.

Allied with this is the principle of individual treatment; and, in applying it, we come into conflict with many philanthropic aims and impulses. Every novelist and every reader of a novel realizes that the life of each character is a separate and particular problem. Otherwise who would care to read novels, and how would the writers find readers? They would be reduced to writing books for the critics only. But what the novelists do in art, we would do in practice. We would individualize, in order to understand and help: they individualize, in order "to please, or possibly to instruct, their readers. If instead of a definite hero or heroine, we read only of an unknown hero-quantity, some unrealized x of the imagination, our interest would be starved, and we should read no more. So, in charity, we lose our interest and miss our purpose, if instead of the applicant, the hero or heroine of our petty piece, we substitute some vague, undefined group, such as school children or vagrants or the unemployed." We may, of course, in charity organization recognize certain types, and estimate at their full strength some of the larger and dominating impulses of life; and, resting our work in part on a recognition of these natural forces, we may co-operate with nature against nature, with the better instincts against the baser. But, that granted, we feel that the problem of the individual is, after all, our main concern. If in the individual or his family we can find one or two out of many miscellaneous conditions of progress, a will not yet worn away, a wife who when the head of the house fails in his duty becomes father and mother to her family, or any serviceable trait or

social obligation, we use these as means of developing that wholesome energy and self-control which lie at the basis of progress. We would build from the best that we find, and would exercise a kind of social imagination, that, based on knowledge and experience, would in some measure forecast the possibility of the individual on whose behalf we are at work, reaching a higher level and maintaining it.

At the same time we insist on two unpalatable truths. Charity, we urge, is not a work of sentiment only: it requires definite training and study. Only those who train themselves in charity have, we think, any right to expect results. They only will know how much must be left to what people vaguely call "new forces" and "time," and, on the other hand, how very much can be done effectually now, if the limitations of experience are accepted.

Charity organization, then, is a school and discipline.

But it is also a faith and purpose,—another truth that, if it be not in itself unpalatable, carries with it some unpalatable conclusions that should lead to many modifications in the actual constitution of charitable agencies. The purposes of charity cannot be fulfilled without close co-operation, and charitable agencies should be so constituted or reformed as to fulfil this primary duty. The feeling of charity is wide-spread. It lies deep in our nature, under-girding all the different communities of religious and ethical thought that exist side by side in modern countries, and underlying much of the more rugged and independent humanity that goes its own way and joins neither sect nor creed. It forms, therefore, a wide basis for union even among those who disagree on many, perhaps on most, other issues. And, further, there is no devotion of mediæval charity, no vision of the ultimate supremacy of the good,—the charitable—mood of life, which is not now as plainly within the reach of act or sight as it might once have been to a Saint Francis or a Saint Paul. The house of life is different: the life itself and its main ideals remain the same. If charity, then, becomes more co-operative, and at the same time more real, it may not indeed solve the social problem (that were too ambitious a task, except for a charlatan), but it may keep on solving it, which is no small achievement. It may have "the wages of going on, and not to die." In the future we hope that those who are engaged in the work of charity and charity organization may have more frequent opportunities of meeting; and we feel that we could not find a better spokesman of our good will toward the large army of charity organizers in America than you yourself who have taken part in our meetings in London, and whom we count as a member of our London society.

Believe me, with very kind regards,

Yours truly,

C. S. Loch.

From Miss Octavia Hill.

190 Marylebone Road, N.W.

Dear Mr. Paine,— Thank you for your most kind letter. I am much interested to hear about your Conference, and very heartily wish you all success.

Nothing beyond hearty congratulations occurs to me to say which would be in any way helpful to you. We are all working in one common cause of great moment, and it is well that from time to time we should exchange greetings. The

response and sympathy that I have always met with from America has filled me with gratitude and with hope. In the very last bit of fresh work I have been engaged in here,— the establishment of the National Trust for Places of Historic Interest and Natural Beauty,— I believe we are to have a representative from your Massachusetts Society. We have had most cordial letters from America. All you tell me of the progress of your work is very cheering. . . .

I am, yours truly,

OCTAVIA HILL.

From Sir Sydney H. Waterlow.

29 CHESHAM PLACE, LONDON, S.W.,
May 24, 1895.

ROBERT T. PAINE, Esq., Boston, Mass.:

My dear Sir,— I always look forward to your annual meetings, and shall be glad if you could send me any report of this year's proceedings. During the last few years I have done my best to call the attention of charitable people in this country, and especially those connected with the Charity Organization Society, to the excellent system which you have inaugurated with a view to obtaining the registration of the names of the recipients of charity in the different districts into which the city is divided for charitable purposes. The fact that your registration does not undertake the relief of distress, but only, as I understand, the registration of the recipients, thus prevents any jealousy or sense of interference on the part of charitable societies or individuals.

You refer to my work in London, in the provision of comfortable and attractive homes for the working people, at a rental fairly within their means, having regard to their weekly earnings. I have brought the work of my society to a conclusion. My Board, acting under my advice, have made up their minds not to undertake the erection of any fresh buildings. We have now about six thousand tenements, giving accommodation to more than 30,000 souls at an average rental of 2*s.* 2*d.* per room per week. The buildings last erected in the western district of London are constantly in demand.

The reasons for bringing our work of construction to a termination have arisen from a fear that we could not in future secure a reasonable return of interest upon the money invested, principally from following reasons: —

(1) The great and constantly increasing charge from local taxation.

(2) The great increase in the cost of construction, arising from increased wages, short hours of labor, and the constant decrease in the amount of work to be obtained from the skilled and unskilled laborers employed in the construction.

(3) From the fact that the London County Council, the local authorities, have themselves undertaken to construct tenements of the class which my society have constructed so largely. As the local authorities borrow their money at less than 3 per cent., and are practically indifferent to the return which is obtained upon the money invested, my society do not feel themselves in a position to compete with them.

I feel satisfied with the position of being a pioneer, having taught the local authorities to do that which, probably, but for my example, they would not have undertaken.

The last buildings which I have erected may, I think, be taken as the best models in London.

Should you pay our city a visit at any time, I shall be only too pleased to afford you any information which you may desire upon this most interesting subject.

I am, dear sir, yours very faithfully,

SYDNEY H. WATERLOW.

President PAINE.— That concludes the papers and addresses that have been prepared; but I think the Committee on Resolutions have struggled to put into words some faint expression, utterly inadequate, of the feelings which the Conference wishes to express. Judge Follett is chairman of that committee.

Judge FOLLETT.— It certainly was delightful after we had left our homes, our wards, and our work to come to this place and see its inhabitants and their surroundings; and one of the first things that struck me was that there were no signs, "Keep off the grass." I thought that, if the freedom of the grass was not abused, that we certainly had come to a people of good citizenship and good government. But I was not surprised at that, when I remembered that some two hundred years ago there came to this State such a man as Thomas Hooker, who put into practice the same principles that one hundred years later Thomas Jefferson carried out, and which have been impressed on us as a people even to this day.

In coming here, I seemed to be coming home. About two hundred years ago my ancestors came to this State of Connecticut from Massachusetts. Some of them remained about a hundred years; and then one of them went to Pennsylvania, and perished in that terrible massacre of Wyoming. The principles that governed you here the people who went further West carried with them, and those are the principles that are now revolutionizing the world. As we have passed round this beautiful city, and have seen the order, the intelligence, the good government, it has impressed us that this long continued principle carried into effect must be the conservative principle that will ultimately save us.

May I now offer the following resolutions and move their adoption?

Resolved, That the members of the Twenty-second National Conference of Charities and Correction extend their thanks to Judge Francis Wayland and the one hundred and twenty-four men and women of the Local Committee who labored with him to provide for the comfort and assistance of the delegates to this Conference and gave us a sumptuous reception; to the railroads that have favored us in transportation; to the Governor of the State of Connecticut and to the Mayor of New Haven and to the President of Yale University for their cordial greeting and welcome to this place; for the benediction of that great man and renowned scholar and educator, President Timothy Dwight, and the support of the professors and students and alumni of this renowned seat of learning and of progressive thought and investigation; to the daily press for their intelligent and extensive reports of the proceedings of the Conference; to the Rev. T. T. Munger, D.D., for his inspiring sermon; to the Hampden Quartet and the choir that gave

us delightful music; to the society of the United Church for the use of this pleasant and commodious house; to the trustees of Yale University for the use of their halls and rooms; to the hotels and citizens that have afforded delegates very pleasant accommodations; to the Methodist church for the use of their house of worship; to the societies that have invited and assisted delegates in visiting their institutions, and especially to Professor and Mrs. Henry W. Farnham for their generous and delightful reception and entertainment at their beautiful and classic home and grounds; and to the Supreme Father of all for this unusually pleasant and delightful weather in which to accomplish our work and to go forth invigorated and better endowed and prepared to aid in saving those needing help and for uplifting even enlightened humanity.

Respectfully submitted,

M. D. FOLLETT,
CLARENCE SNYDER,
JAS. LYONS,
Committee.

Mr. WINES.— I desire, on behalf of my associates, to express to the faculty of the university and the residents of New Haven our sense of obligation for their cordial hospitality. We had heard much of the beauty of your city, but the half had not been told us. We have enjoyed every moment of our stay here.

But we thank you not so much for your hospitality as for the service which you have rendered us. We have been, so to speak, experimenting in philanthropy. Philanthropy has not yet passed the empirical stage. In trying to alleviate suffering and to abate obvious social evils, we have followed a natural instinct. Some success has attended our efforts, but we have been more impressed with the sense of our failures. Some of our experiments have aggravated the evils we have sought to remedy. We have now reached the point where our attention is turned to the causes of social evils, and we begin to ask whether it is not possible to check the operation of those causes. Here we run against questions which are purely scientific,— questions of economics, of politics, of heredity, of evolution. As practical men and women, we seek the aid of scholars in the development of what may be termed the science of philanthropy. Whither shall we go, if not to the universities, in order to learn how to meet and counteract the influences which forever tend to produce a degenerate type of humanity?

Now, the great debt under which Yale has placed this Conference consists in the fact that when, with timid hesitancy, we sought an invitation to meet in a university town, New Haven responded to our wish, and permitted us to come here. Philanthropy, as an art, involves the practical application of sound sociological principles. Sociology has at last found a place in the curriculum of colleges. We have not derived much practical benefit, however, as yet from the kind of instruction imparted by the young men who have been selected to give systematic form to this new science. The most of them do not seem to know very much about it. They are still engaged in defining it. Few of them have had large personal contact with abnormal men and women, of the kind with which we have to

deal; and their analysis and synthesis of the subject fail for the most part to answer our questions or relieve our difficulties. We have thought that possibly a permanent bond of union between them and us, if it could be formed, would benefit them as much as it will benefit us. The older men in this Conference — those of us whose heads are beginning to turn gray on account of unsatisfied aspirations and disappointed hopes — feel that they must soon confide the burden which they have so long carried to the younger and abler men who will come after us. Before we pass away we desire to impart to them what we have learned, not at second hand, not from books, but in the hard school of actual philanthropic labor. There is growing up in the modern world a new learned profession which is neither law nor medicine nor theology, but a sort of combination of all three,— the profession of applied philanthropics, to which the men of the century to come are now being called as to a novel vocation. They can be properly fitted for it only in the university. The university has a new task and a new function to perform in the economy of education: it must qualify selected men for a special service. The American university in particular has the duty laid upon it of training citizens of this ideal republic. Citizenship is more than scholarship. The scholar may be an egotist; but the true citizen must be an altruist, who seeks the well-being of the social whole before his own fame or fortune.

So much for that. With regard to the future of this organization, permit me to remind you that every Conference has its own distinct character and work. We have this year sought to identify the cause of charity with that of the higher education, and, we trust, not wholly in vain. Next year, in Michigan, we shall seek to attach to ourselves more closely the great body of men and women engaged in the actual care of the poor in counties and municipalities,— the overseers of the poor and the superintendents and directors of city and county institutions. The Conference of 1896 will be in many respects very unlike that of 1895. We extend to the citizens of New Haven and of New England not merely our thanks for courtesies received and heartily enjoyed, but a most cordial invitation to meet with us when next we assemble in the metropolis of the lumber district, the progressive, wide-awake, liberal, and thoroughly Western city of Grand Rapids.

Judge WAYLAND, Chairman of the Local Committee.— *Mr. President, Ladies and Gentlemen,* — Last Friday evening I had the honor, in behalf of the Local Committee, of welcoming you to New Haven. This evening the agreeable duty is devolved on me to thank you for coming here. We are very grateful to you for having given us the opportunity in our own homes to hear discussed some of the most important subjects in the wide field of practical philanthropy,— some of the most important that can be presented for the consideration of intelligent men and women. Hardly any aspect has been

overlooked of the momentous question: How shall personal service and pecuniary aid be most wisely applied to the relief of human suffering? Certainly, the topics which have been touched upon have received instructive and adequate treatment.

We are grateful also for the opportunity you have given us of making pleasant acquaintances, which in many cases will ripen into enduring friendships. I trust that your visit has had its picturesque side, and that you have had time and inclination to become familiar with the natural beauties of New Haven,— its elms, its parks, its lawns, its walks, its drives, its water, useful at all events for irrigation and college boat races, and the other local attractions of which we are justly proud. Rest assured, ladies and gentlemen, that you leave behind you pleasant memories, and that we hope we shall see you here again. And so with sincere reluctance we say farewell.

The PRESIDENT.— One last duty remains to me,— to draw these labors to a close. My task has been composed of three parts,— a good deal of hard work, honor, and happiness. No one can prepare for this Conference without a great deal of hard work. Now that the labor is over, I enjoy it. The honor I appreciate with the utmost gratitude. The happiness will last through life; and I shall rejoice always to feel that you have honored me with this office, and given me this great privilege of doing what I can to make this Conference profitable to all our members.

And now you will go home to your various homes all over this broad land strengthened, I feel sure, by the counsels, the encouragement, the inspiration, which you have drawn from meeting with each other.

May I take one moment to speak of the regret which we have felt at missing some who have been absent? First, Mr. William P. Letchworth, whose acquaintance I first made in these meetings, and whose loyal devotion to our work is a wonder. Then we cannot help recalling Mr. Elmore, now eighty-two years young, still strong and well. We miss his presence here, and that devotion to charity mixed with infinite humor. And I cannot help saying one word about Miss Zilpha D. Smith, of Boston, the chief executive officer of our Associated Charities, who has put into it such noble devotion and self-sacrifice, especially during the hard winter of the unemployed. After labors heavier than one man or woman could carry, she took charge of the great problem of unemployment, so far as it fell upon the Associated Charities. Then, last, let me speak a few words of loving and affectionate delight as I recall the interest which Mr. John Glenn has taken in aiding me as President of this Conference, and the delightful response which I have always had from his kind regard. A leader of the work in Baltimore, he is one of those noble spirits who have guided the work there. When I was chosen President, what did he, though blind, do but pack his valise, and

come to my summer home, to help me with his advice as to my duties, and it would be hard to tell all the help I had from him.

We have enjoyed our visit to New Haven. A son of Harvard for many generations, it was with peculiar interest that I came to Yale. We have not always fared well at the hands of Yale, nor always badly, because you will permit me to remember that forty-two years ago, in the first boat race on Lake Winnepisaukee, between Harvard and Yale, Harvard won!

May I add my words of appreciation of the kindness of our hosts who have entertained us in New Haven, and first, of course, of the Committee on Entertainment, led by a man whose presence is strength, whose words are wisdom, and whose noble devotion to charity came from an illustrious sire to an honored son? We shall always remember the vision of beauty in the home of Mr. and Mrs. Farnham and their charming hospitality.

Nothing more remains for me except to turn over the office to my successor. Before I do that, the Conference ought to know the devotion which our General Secretary, Mr. Hart, has given to this work. It is a great delight that we have men and women who will do the hardest work for the love of the good that they can do. That is the reward which Mr. Hart is receiving for the splendid work that he is doing. Out of such work grows the reasonable hope that the strength of this body will continually increase.

One thing we have not learned in coming here, wherein lies the secret of Yale's success. One speaker thought it lay in the fact that there was no sign, "Keep off the grass." But it is worth learning; and, if the members of our Conference could learn it, so that, as we return to our various homes and take up the struggles that await us, where we are all trying to do what we can to make the land we love stronger and purer and better and happier, we could then go to work with the same indomitable will which enables the Yale team to overcome any opposition.

Mr. Wright, I turn this office over to you, and I give you joy in it! I congratulate you upon the honor that the Conference has done you, and have great pleasure in welcoming you to this chair.

Mr. A. O. Wright, President elect, thanked Mr. Paine and the Conference for his election in the following words: —

Mr. President,— I will not undertake to say over again that which has been so well said this evening concerning this Conference. I will express only my very heartfelt appreciation of the high honor that has been bestowed upon me by making me the successor of so worthy a predecessor, and of the long roll of illustrious Presidents of this Conference, some of whom are in this audience, and all of whom I have felt it an honor to be intimately acquainted with; one of whom I attended to the grave less than three weeks ago, with

whom I had been associated for many years in the State Board of Charities of Wisconsin.

I esteem it a very high honor indeed to be President of such an organization as this, in which the quality of the membership makes it more valuable than many organizations of far larger numbers. Many years' service in this Conference as an officer and as the chairman of standing committees have kept me acquainted with its members; and I speak advisedly and with knowledge when I say they are men and women intellectually able, morally of high character, and qualified in philanthropy as no theorists can possibly be qualified for real use to the world, and as no mere sentimental philanthropists can ever be, by actual practical struggling for years with the problems that we have to meet in dealing with the defective classes, in aiming to protect society as well as to protect the defectives themselves from their own evils, the evils of heredity, of environment, of habit. To have had the acquaintance of such men and women, to have had an intimate personal friendship with many of this number, is a liberal education in itself; and the years of my middle life have been made much more valuable to me through this association with you and others of my friends of this Conference who are not here to-night.

The objects for which we are working are among the highest and worthiest objects that can be assigned to any human being. The ideals of character and of attainment that are brought into this Conference necessarily in connection with the work that we are doing are high ideals. We are not able to accomplish all that we hope for. That is a thing common to humanity everywhere. We can criticise better than we can perform. We can see much that we cannot attain that we should be glad to attain. And yet it is better for us that we should have these high ideals, even if we cannot accomplish them all at once. As Emerson said, "Hitch your wagon to a star."

One of the citizens of New Haven said to me, after learning that we are to meet next year at Grand Rapids: "How does it happen that you are going so far off? Will you have anybody there to attend your Conference?" I said, "We shall have twice as many as we have had in New Haven." Our Eastern friends should not forget that this Conference began its life in the interior States. Only two men are still living who were present at the very beginning, Mr. Wines and Mr. Elmore. The first meeting of this Conference as a separate body was held in Chicago in 1879, and the majority of the meetings have been held in the interior States. We are, therefore, only going home again after a short excursion into New England. We expect and believe that we shall be able to do two things at the next Conference. One is to increase the membership and attendance, and another is to give a more popular interest to the evening meetings. If we are teaching social science, we ought to teach a

popular science as well as a science for the select few. The more scientific forms of our work can be presented at the section meetings. We wish to have the public meetings attractive to that very large number of persons who are willing to be taxed for public charity and to contribute for private charities, but who are not able to give a large amount of time and attention to an intimate acquaintance with charitable work. We want to have such persons taught by this Conference. Those also who work in the obscurer private charities and in municipal and local charities should have the advantage of such a Conference.

We hope that you here and others throughout the country will not feel that you can get all the benefit of the National Conference of Charities and Correction by merely reading the publisher's volume of Proceedings. However ably reported these debates may be, however fully printed the papers may be, there is a large part of the value of these meetings which cannot be put into print. The spirit of the meeting evaporates in type. What we learn in association with one another and in private conference with one another is equally valuable with what we get in the Conference itself.

Mr. President, good-by, till we meet at Grand Rapids.

Adjourned at 10.15 P.M., to meet in Grand Rapids, Mich., in May, 1896.

XVIII.

Section Meetings.

CHARITY ORGANIZATION.

[Section meetings were held every afternoon during the session of the Conference. Those under the charge of the Committee on Organized Charity were fully reported, and it was hoped space would be found for printing these reports. That proved impossible, but abstracts of a few papers and the remarks of various speakers in discussion are given in the following pages.— Ed.]

EVILS GROWING OUT OF EXTORTIONATE USURY.

BY JOSEPH LEE, BOSTON.

From the day when the Medicis bequeathed their coat-of-arms to the pawn-brokers of Christendom, the three balls have been the sign of a business more profitable, as a rule, than business in general. In this country, where government regulates the traffic, and does not, as in Continental Europe, administer it, the trade has borne a certain brand of shame. It is one of the three businesses in New York City which are always carried on behind shuttered or shaded doors. It smacks of extortion, of profits wrung from the very poor which shock the moral sense; and it is despised.

Yet the occasional borrowing of money is to most men an absolute necessity. Merchant and mechanic must alike borrow. If the merchant had to pay half or one-quarter of the rate of interest charged the mechanic, he would speedily be bankrupt. A low rate of interest has been called one of the greatest factors of civilization. But, if we exult because in London and New York the market rate has been reduced to from 1 to 4 per cent. per annum, what has civilization done for the English or American wage-earner, who still pays from 36 to 100 per cent. per annum for the loans which he must get from time to time, often through no fault or lack of thrift on his part?

Here is an undoubted field for philanthropic work. After a careful study of the Mont-de-Piété system abroad and of the interesting experiment in Boston under the leadership of Mr. Robert Treat Paine, and after a three-year struggle to raise the necessary capital, the Provident Loan Society of New York opened its doors May 21, 1894, with a fund of $100,000, made up of 16 subscriptions of $5,000 each, 2 of $2,000, 15 of $1,000, and 2 of $500. This money was contributed outright; but the trustees may (if they choose) pay the subscribers any amount, not exceeding 6 per cent. per annum, which is covered by the net earnings. Certificates, transferable on the society's books, were issued to the subscribers. These certificates have no voting power. The society was incorporated by special law, and is governed by a board of fifteen trustees elected by the incorporators and by the persons elected as additional members by the incorporators.

The interest charge is 1 per cent. per month or any part of a month. There are no extra charges, such as are common in other pawnbroker shops.

Beginning May 21, 1894, it was not until September 5 that the whole $100,000 was outstanding in loans. The society then borrowed $40,000 at 5 per cent., and loaned that out. Then it paid this sum, and provided additional capital by issuing ten-year 5 per cent. debenture bonds for $100,000, about all of which have been sold, largely to other charitable institutions.

At the close of business, May 20, 1895, one year from beginning, the society had loaned in all, on 21,432 pledges, $358,672.50. Of these about half in number and amount of loans had been redeemed,— namely, 10,640 pledges, representing in money $176,160, — leaving outstanding, as principal of loans, $182,612.50.

The interest received in cash had been $5,830.50, and there was still due on current loans the interest on $182,612.50.

The average loan made had been $16.73.

The average loan redeemed had been $16.55.

Next autumn, when the first annual sale of unredeemed pledges takes place, it will be possible to state absolutely what the financial result has been. It is believed that, beginning with 1896, at least 4 per cent. and perhaps 6 per cent. can be paid on the $100,000 contributed. This is a consummation devoutly to be wished. Philanthropy which pays dividends is apt to be perpetual. And such a result will unlock the vaults of New York to the Provident Loan Society, and enable it bit by bit to raise the $10,000,000 or more which it needs in order to control the pawnbrokering business of the metropolis.

One of its most valuable indirect results has been that two or three of its leading rivals have already reduced their rates to meet its competition.

Up to Nov. 30, 1894, out of 12,286 pledges, 11,146 were of so-

called jewelry (ranging from watches to revolvers), and 1,140 were of clothing. These figures and those already given as to the size of the average loan show that the society has not reached far down into the submerged tenth as yet. As one of its aims is to take away the stigma of borrowing on pledges, so that the poor may come to it as freely with their collateral as a great merchant would to his bank with his collateral, none but absolutely necessary questions are asked of our patrons; and hence statistics as to individual borrowers are not to be had. Most of them have been Hebrews, many Americans and Germans, few Irish, Italian, and French. A good deal of out-of-town business has been done, ranging from Connecticut on the East to Illinois on the West and Texas on the South.

Our business with the very poor will doubtless be increased as soon as we can open branch shops (the present one is not in touch with the tenement-house districts).

Our minimum loan is $1; our maximum, $100. Personally, I think the maximum should be largely increased.

Our spacious quarters at 279 Fourth Avenue are always open to inspection. If you will all come there, and see what is really being done, the Provident Loan Society will not only increase its own capital quickly and greatly, but it will also see through your efforts other banks for the poor started in many another city. God speed the day!

SANITARY OVERSIGHT OF DWELLINGS.

ABSTRACT OF ADDRESS BY MARION I. MOORE, BUFFALO, N.Y.

A Charity Organization Society should be a power in the community in promoting whatever tends to the permanent improvement of the poor and unfortunate, whether it be the upbuilding of character, the improvement of the home life, or in the outward surroundings of that home.

An all-important question in every large city is the proper housing of the working people. Fortunate is the city or town where they can and do own their own homes, and where but two or three families live in one house. But, unfortunately, in most cities we find them huddled together in large tenements, with anywhere from four to forty families in one building. Where a large number of families live in one tenement, and no one person in the house is responsible for its good appearance and sanitary condition, and where the owner is negligent in making repairs, which many times are necessitated by the destructiveness of the tenant, it soon begins to show the lack of care, and in a short time the conditions are so wretched and unsanitary that it is reported to the officers of the Board of Health, who order certain changes to be made, and then apparently forget to see that they are carried out, or in some cases do not have the necessary authority to make the required improvements.

The experience of all cities has shown that it is expedient that some association should have a general oversight of tenement houses, not only as to their sanitary arrangements, but their construction. What association is better fitted and equipped for the work than a Charity Organization Society, with its large corps of workers and its influential standing in the community?

If a Charity Organization Society is to have the responsibility of this oversight, shall it be left to the agents and friendly visitors or to a committee appointed to that special work? An agent, with her multitudinous duties, has neither the time nor the thought necessary for the work. The most she can do is to report to the proper authorities all cases of nuisances that she sees, or to which her attention has been called, but she is not apt to look into the sanitary conditions of the house unless particularly directed, nor is she alone able to see that the nuisances she has reported are abated. A friendly visitor by repeated visits does have an influence over a tenant, so that the rooms are kept cleaner and tidier. If she becomes acquainted with all the tenants, a change will then be noticed in the condition of the halls and stairways; and, if she can interest the landlord in the good appearance and condition of his house, a decided change will be effected.

But the united efforts of agents and visitors will effect no very marked changes in the surroundings, unless public opinion demand that the dwellings of the working people be kept in a good and proper sanitary condition, that the streets be cleaned, that ashes and garbage be regularly collected. To rouse this public opinion, there must be agitation both through the newspapers and at public meetings. How can this be better effected than by putting the oversight of the dwellings into the hands of a few interested, aggressive, and determined people, who by their own visits and reports from the agents and visitors are familiar with the conditions and surroundings of the tenements, and will insist upon the enforcement of ordinances both on the part of the tenant, owner, and the authorities?

The Buffalo Charity Organization Society has always deemed the oversight of the sanitary conditions of the homes of the poor one of its special duties; and it has been the means of having condemned as uninhabitable many dwellings, and caused improvements to be made in many others. During the last three years we have been most active in this special work.

In the fall of 1892, anticipating that cholera might come to Buffalo, and that our city should be in a good sanitary condition, the agents of the Charity Organization Society were appointed sanitary inspectors by the Board of Health, and detailed to inspect the tenement houses. The inspection was conducted under the direction of the Committee on Sanitary Conditions of the Homes of the Poor and the assistant secretary. Daily reports were made to the Board of Health and to the society. The inspection was continued for

nearly a month, and showed that there was a larger number of tenement houses in the city than we supposed, though the majority of our working people either own their own homes or rent a few rooms, or live in small cottages one and a half or two stories high, with from two to four families in the house. The inspection showed that 31 per cent. of the houses inspected were in an unsanitary condition. In many cases the drainage was not good, the plumbing defective, cellars foul and filled with refuse, rooms ill-kept and dirty, hallways and stairways untidy, streets not clean, and with ashes and garbage strewn about them.

The result of this inspection and agitation was a general cleaning up on the part of landlord and tenant. Many houses that were unsanitary were, by order of the Board of Health, put in a good condition; while in others the defects were only partially remedied. The chief outcome of the inspection was the adoption by the city of ordinances governing the erection and care of tenement and lodging houses, which had been drafted by the Committee on Sanitary Condition of the Homes of the Poor, with the co-operation of the Board of Health and Superintendent of Buildings.

The committee then turned its attention to the enforcement of the ordinances, and found after repeated visits of inspection during the past winter that many of the same tenements which had been reported two years ago as in a bad condition, and which had been at the time only partially remedied, were again in an unsanitary condition. The matter was brought quite forcibly this past winter to the attention of the proper authorities, and through newspaper agitation many changes have been effected.

Since the ordinances went into effect a number of large tenements have been erected and some old buildings remodelled, the plans of which have been first submitted to the Board of Health and the Superintendent of Buildings for their approval. By this means it is hoped that our tenements will be properly constructed and in accordance with the requirements of the ordinances.

The committee, in its general oversight of the tenements, has seen the great need of either private or public bath-houses, and has been instrumental this past winter in having a public bath-house established, to be situated in the tenement-house section, and which will be open all the year.

The Civic Club of Buffalo, acting upon the suggestion of the president of the Charity Organization Society, and with the co-operation of the Committee on Sanitary Conditions of the Homes of the Poor, has taken as one of its branches of work the gathering of information concerning tenements, with a view to the enforcement of the ordinances governing the same. The work is directed by a committee, the chairman being the assistant secretary of the Charity Organization Society. A paid visitor makes the sanitary inspection of the house, and also takes a complete census of the tenement-

house population, in regard to number and size of rooms, amount of rent, number of occupants, nationality, residence in city and country, alien or citizen, occupation, sickness, etc., using for this purpose blanks prepared by the committee.

The recent inspections have shown that many of the tenements which two years ago were reported as uninhabitable are now in a good sanitary condition, this having been brought about by the co-operation of the Board of Health, the owner and tenant, urged on by the Charity Organization Society. Experience shows that people living on clean, quiet, orderly streets, in tenements well kept, both as to sanitary arrangements and cleanliness, keep, as a general thing, their own apartments neat and clean, and also that their whole bearing is one of self-respect.

IMPROVED DWELLINGS.

REMARKS BY PROFESSOR E. R. L. GOULD, PH.D., UNIVERSITY OF CHICAGO.

In the management of tenement houses, to be sure of success, you must have joint management: I mean of the sexes. In the organization with which Mrs. Lincoln, of Boston, is connected, half of the directors are women; and they must be so, according to the by-laws. The most successful enterprises in Germany are those in which the rents are collected by women. The most successful enterprise in Glasgow is one where the rent is collected by women. And so I may say, from personal experience in London and other large cities, that there are a number of societies working along the lines of Miss Octavia Hill, not directly concerned with model effort, but with regenerating the existing houses, where a good dividend is earned in every instance. That is 4 per cent. in Great Britain. I would go slightly above a savings-bank rate for a good dividend. I think this field of work is one in which the charity organization societies ought especially to engage. I recall at this moment the Edinburgh Social Union, which is, I think, one of the most successful of all the organizations that I have seen, and which co-operates with charity organization effort. It represents a union of persons having deep pockets and good hearts, and persons whose pockets are not so deep, but whose sympathies are quite as strong. Bad property, which is in danger of being closed on account of its unsanitary condition, is bought, and is placed in the hands of the society, who wish to work, but have not the money to invest. The first class get 5 per cent. upon their investment, and in addition to that the property is improved, because all moneys which are collected over and above the rate of interest go for the improvement and repair of the property.

Now, the work of the women in this respect who do the rent collecting is essentially that of friendly visiting; and here is where you have a broad and enormous extension of that most vital of all principles of charity organization effort, friendly visiting, which can be conducted, not merely with ethical profit, but actually with financial profit.

The thing which we need most in our large cities in America today is an exappropriation law such as exists in England since 1890. It is not sufficient when you go to a bad sanitary house to close it up, because a little political influence will occasionally open it after some fictitious repairs have been made; and for some reason or other, if the proprietor is recalcitrant, especially if he is a man of influence, he is not followed up as closely as he might be. There is but one remedy, there is but one cure, for cancer, and that is the knife; and there is but one cure for an unsanitary house, and that is to blot it out of existence. That can be done, and that should be done, on an equitable basis. We have been frightened in this country with stories of what exappropriation costs. It used to cost a great deal, but that was when the right kind of practice was not engaged in. The value of an exappropriated house when exappropriated for sanitary reasons is determined under the English law by the value of the land as land and by the value of the old buildings as salvage. That is very different from putting a value upon the rental value of the property. It means a tremendous saving, and it means furthermore this: that the former practice was in reality a premium upon slum property; and, until we can get rid of the idea that the value of this old property is to be fixed by the value of what it rents for, so long shall we stay in the rear. The only equitable basis is to consider that property as a fit subject for being closed and as having no rental value whatever, but as simply having a value as salvage.

Let me give you an instance in property in Westminster, London, which was exappropriated under the old English practice, and cost three pounds and fifteen shillings per square yard, while some adjacent property, exappropriated under the new law, cost less than one pound. The latter was an equitable valuation.

Charity organization societies should take up this matter, and use their influence to get the only efficient weapon that you can have to deal with irremediably unsanitary houses.

There are many other things which I would like to emphasize, but I don't care to pass the limit of time. But let me say this in conclusion. Of course, we all admit that the greatest, the most powerful preventive agencies which we can adopt will be the most active in furthering the purpose upon which charity organizations are founded. It is absolutely of no use trying to stop a stream of running water unless you cut it off somewhere; and so it is absolutely of no use to seek to alleviate poverty and crime unless you can get at its source. One of the most fertile sources, I should say perhaps

the most fertile source, of poverty is this bad housing. The bulk of it is due to the bad sanitary conditions in cities. The houses in bad sanitary condition are of course a menace to the neighborhood. Then, again, when we look to the housing problem, we think we have the key to the solution of many things. For instance, we are able on this basis to make a differentiation of the needy population. We can block them out, so to speak. We can say the artisan, the higher wage-earning class, can be provided for by model homes. As they can be made to pay, there would seem to be in the future of things no reasonable excuse why every workingman earning fair wage should not have a good home. Then the second element in this differentiation is the class who are slovenly and careless, and not of very strong moral stamina, persons who get drunk occasionally. These I think we can take care of on the line of Miss Octavia Hill's work.

Lastly, I think we reach the lowest of all elements which now find shelter in the slums of cities. That is, I think with the enforcement of sanitary law becoming stricter and stricter, it makes it to the detriment of the owner to maintain slum property, for the reason that he is continually nagged by the health authorities to keep it in repair; for the further reason that the only class of people who go to live there are nomadic in their characteristics, and irregular, and his rent varies, so that he cannot make much out of them.

With the enforcement of the sanitary law, and with this exappropriation as a weapon hanging over slum proprietors, the result will be that, instead of being a premium, as there now often is, for the maintenance of slum property, it will be positively to the detriment of the owner to have it; and that will result in liberating this great class of people from their present shelters. I think we should meet that by the provision of model lodging-houses, which either by private effort or municipal can be made to pay. I am not in favor of municipal control except merely as an example.

One word in conclusion. I think we ought to consider this question, of course, as an ethical question at bottom. We must consider that the house is the body, that the family is its soul. We all know that corrupt usage of the flesh brings blight upon the soul in physical existence, and so any environment which tends to drag persons down must operate to recruit the classes of defective and dependent and delinquent who are chronic subjects.

MARRIED VAGABONDS.

BY MISS MARY E. RICHMOND.

I have ventured to give this title to my paper, because I am anxious to bring the *man* of the neglected family out of that retirement — behind wife and children — into which he has so discreetly withdrawn. A great deal has been written about the single vagabond. His nomadic habits have been described by specialists; and some have even ventured to turn tramp and take the road, in order to secure data at first hand for their studies. No specialist, however, has been able to study the married vagabond in the same way. He is well protected from scientific scrutiny,— too well protected. It has been my fortune to know individually a considerable number of both the single and the married fraternity, and I confess to a preference for the former. It is true that the tramp is a barbarian, openly at war with society; but, then, he is not so prompt to claim from society the privileges and protection which she so willingly extends to the head of a family. In short, he is not such a cowardly, unenterprising creature.

Granting, then, that the married vagabond is a bad fellow, what will you do with him? For my instruction on this question I sent circular letters of inquiry to a number of charity workers in this country concerning (1) the legal treatment of idle and intemperate heads of families, (2) the charitable treatment of the same, (3) the sentiment of the community on this subject, and have received 74 answers from 34 different States.

These letters show that laws to compel a man to support his wife, or children, or both, exist in 20 of the 34 States reporting, though the law is not enforced or is seldom enforced in all of the 20, and in 7 of the others it is only partially enforced. If I may venture to make any deductions from my incomplete returns, it would appear that there are better laws and a better enforcement of them in the North Atlantic States. So far as I can discover, no laws exist in the South Atlantic and South Central States, though, judging by my own State, this absence of remedies does not argue an absence of the disease. The North Central States have some good enactments; and the Western States show plenty of law, but little or no enforcement,— an illustration of the uselessness of legislation which precedes the education of public opinion. In nearly half the States having a non-support law the inability to secure judgment without the wife's testimony has rendered the law of no effect.

Perhaps the provisions of the Massachusetts statute will serve as a fair example of good non-support legislation. This law provides that "whoever unreasonably neglects to provide for the support of

his wife or minor child may be fined not over $20, or imprisoned not exceeding six months; and the fine may be paid in whole or in part to the town, city, corporation, society, or person supporting the wife or child at the time of the complaint. At the trial, if convicted, the man is often placed on probation, agreeing to pay a certain sum each week for the support of his children." Boston is constantly enforcing this law; but from the Associated Charities in one of the smaller towns of Massachusetts comes the statement: "Neither the police nor our society can secure enforcement any further than by making the man's life a burden to him, as long as he stays here, if he does not obey it. In every case of which I have definite knowledge the man has, in the course of a few weeks, simply disappeared."

A Rhode Island judge, writing of the imperfect operation of the law in his own State, adds: "Such an enforcement is, perhaps, all that can be looked for, and all that is reasonable. For law, while capable of pretty strict enforcement as a penal instrument, is not a very efficient means of securing the discharge of social duties." He might have added that it is a very inefficient means indeed, when by its enactments we would relieve ourselves of all charitable responsibilities toward the man we seek to punish or the family we seek to protect. I think I am prepared to acknowledge that a good non-support law is better than no law at all; but I would only admit so much where the citizens of a State are fully determined to enforce it, and then re-enforce it by every other possible remedy.

One of the simplest and most effective of these other remedies is to habitually regard the man as the head of the family. As stated, this sounds like a truism; but, as a matter of fact, charitable societies, churches, benevolent individuals, and even public officials have drifted into the habit of receiving and filling applications for relief, made by the mothers and children of needy families. Charitable people learn to know the women in mothers' missions. They know the children in free kindergartens and Sunday-schools and clubs. The men do not attend these things. They are rather shy of appearing at all, unless in dull times they take the trouble to pose as industrious artisans out of work. The rule is certainly a safe one for individuals and for institutions that, where relief is concerned, the man of the family, if able to walk, shall not only do all the asking, but shall show good cause why he should receive. This would at once break up the pernicious practice of sending children to charity offices.

So far, I have taken it for granted that there is but one type of married vagabond,— a very bad type indeed. Such an hypothesis breaks down utterly in any attempt to make specific recommendations about treatment. If the letters I have received show anything, they show this: that, where there has been any attempt to deal individually and continuously with idle husbands and neglected fami-

lies, there has been, at least, some measure of success, and that wherever there has been no such attempt, neither giving nor withholding, neither law nor the absence of it, has been of any effect. I do not pretend to claim that the friendly visitor is a solution of this many-sided and difficult problem, but I do not see how it is to be solved without her. (The friendly visitor is usually a woman, though the men engaged in this work certainly deserve minority representation.) Speaking from our Baltimore experience, we would rather have one hundred good visitors, patient, intelligent, and resourceful, to deal with the married vagabonds of our city, than the best law ever framed, if, in order to get such a law, we must lose the visitors.

The visitor's tools are moral suasion, the cutting off of supplies from every available source, the frequently renewed offer of work, and, last of all, the law. A paid agent may apply these also, so may a clergyman or public official; but the advantage peculiar to the visitor is that, confining her work, as she does, to a very few families, she has better opportunities of becoming well acquainted. These tools are only effective when applied with a full knowledge of the circumstances. Sometimes no one of them is needed. I knew of one case where the man was given a fresh start in life by persuading him to remove his family to a new neighborhood, away from old associations. In another family the visitor's influence was needed on both man and wife. The wife was something of a scold; and, when that was remedied, and the man's old employer had been persuaded to give him one more trial, the visitor went with the man before a magistrate, where he took the pledge. This remedy, useless and worse than useless, as we all know, in many cases, just happened to be the right thing here. From being an attractive ne'er-do-weel, this man has become a fairly steady, hard-working citizen.

I would not, in my enthusiasm for the work of friendly visiting, lose sight of the old adage that it is hard to make a silk purse out of a sow's ear. The best we can do is a sorry patchwork often; but, then, civilization itself is just that, and only in the glowing pages of the modern socialist do we find everything made new all at once. Where a man is really anxious to fight his appetite for drink, an arrangement to pay his wages to his wife or to the visitor is often the best that can be done. The United Workers of Norwich have been peculiarly successful in this direction.

In many cases the more heroic treatment of cutting off supplies must be resorted to. So long as charitable people insist that they must forestall the possibility of "letting the innocent suffer" by aiding every neglected family generously, just so long the lazy man has society by the throat. When we find that we are dealing with such a man, it becomes necessary to prove that we have more strength of character to resist temptation to help than he has strength of character to resist temptation to work. I regret to say that he stands the test better than we do, and frequently wins the day. Where a

woman refuses to leave a good-for-nothing husband, she will sometimes change her mind when she finds that the charitable people are in earnest. Where the man finds that the threats of the charitable are not, as they too often are, entirely empty, he will sometimes, when pushed to the wall, take work. I know of a soddenly selfish fellow who did nothing for his family, and whose wife could not be persuaded to leave him. At last the Charity Organization Society convinced the benevolent individuals of the neighborhood that they must withhold help, and agreed to be responsible for the consequences. A neighbor who could be trusted was paid to feed the wife and children without the husband's knowledge and in the strictest privacy. When he inquired why such a church hadn't helped, and where the basket was from Mrs. So-and-so, and the money from the Circle of King's Daughters, and the accustomed help from half a dozen other sources, the wife replied that one and all had said they would rather let her starve than continue to help the family of a man who wouldn't work. He held out for two days, and then came for the labor-yard work order, which he had previously refused, working steadily for some weeks, and until the work closed.

Sometimes the removal of wife and children will bring a man to his senses. One wife, for whom work was found in an institution, where she could keep her two children with her, has agreed to go back to her husband on condition that he will first work steadily for a year, and save his earnings.

It will appear from what I have said that a visitor must have patience, must not look for very brilliant or immediate results; but it is possible, on the other hand, for her to have too much patience, or, rather, to think that she is patient when, in reality, she is cowardly. I have seen a family going steadily down hill for years, the underfed, overworked mother taking finally to drink, the younger children beginning life with under-vitalized, diseased bodies, and, finally, the violent death of the second boy a month ago coming as the least tragic happening in the family history. All this preventable misery had gradually accumulated because the visitors and others charitably interested lacked courage five years ago. When charitable people delay and temporize in such cases, I wish they could have a good, wholesome, terrifying vision of the future they are helping to manufacture. The fact is, the supply of capable visitors is altogether inadequate; and it is the most important function of a charity organization society to increase this supply.

I have given a very imperfect review of legal and charitable practice in cases of non-support. The last division of my subject brings me to another function of a charity organization society; namely, the influencing of public opinion. One of the questions sent to my correspondents was, "Is charitable sentiment inclined to make it easy or difficult for a man with an interesting family to live without work?" Of the thirty-four States heard from, thirty acknowledged

that it is easy, on the whole, for a lazy man to find support, provided he has a family, though in States where charity organization methods are well established it is not so easy as formerly.

There is important work before us, and we cannot afford to delay its energetic prosecution a moment longer. Some of us have grown so sensitive to the charge of hardness that, though we know we are right, we fear to lead public opinion. Others of us are not very clear what to think or to do. The expression, "Of course we cannot let the children suffer because the man is unworthy," occurs again and again in the letters I have received. "The man is benefited by what we do for the family," writes one society; "but we can't help that." These are question-begging statements; for is it not clear that, no matter how lavish or how sparing our material assistance, we do let the children suffer, and suffer very terribly, so long as we leave them in the clutches of a man who will make no effort to care for them, who is often diseased or depraved, who shelters himself behind their neglected condition? What idea of a home, of industry, of decency, can children get in such surroundings? Surely, for the sake of the children, born and unborn, we should do something more to relieve their sufferings than to give material assistance. There is no need that the children should starve. If we are really in earnest, there is always some way other than that; but I have no hesitancy in saying that to let them starve even would be, on the whole, kinder than to leave undone those things which we so clearly ought to do for their welfare.

Some one has said to me that this is a religious question,— that, when a woman has sworn to love, honor, and obey, we have no right to interfere between husband and wife, and that we do it at our peril. It is indeed a religious question, though in a wider sense than was intended by the objector. As to the sacredness of a wife's duties I would raise no manner of question. But the duties of a mother are equally sacred; and sometimes, as human duties will, these duties as wife and as mother conflict. Even when such conflict is inevitable, I might hesitate to advocate interference if charitable relief were not in itself an interference. Shall our interference be effective or the reverse? To my mind there is only one test of this effectiveness, and that is the lasting welfare of the helpless members of the family,— the children,— not what is most comfortable for them at the moment, but what is best for them in the long run. Surely, if the dictates of religion are more imperatively clear on any one human obligation rather than another, that particular obligation is our duty to the helpless; and I am convinced that in time both charity and religion will learn to extend this consideration to unborn generations. It is well to note that, though the principle I have attempted to formulate would break up many homes (homes only in name) which are now kept together, it would, on the other hand, keep together many homes which have been too hastily broken up.

I have not had a good word to fling at the married vagabond so far. In closing, I would say a word for him by way of extenuation. I have often been forced to notice how people of his class get their view of life as a whole (in so far as they can be said to have any) from very slight and insignificant items. I remember one man, whose view of what the municipality ought to do for him had been permanently settled by a free pass from Washington to New York. Washington is lavish of passes, and what seemed to her right and just very naturally seemed so to him. Now, the married vagabond is, to a certain extent, the victim of sentimentality and gush: he has been taking himself at the charitable valuation; and the last remedy which I have to offer for his complaint is this,— let us get a clear-cut and vigorous opinion about him, and then — through our churches, our laws, our newspapers, our charity agents, our friendly visitors — let us make it perfectly clear to him what that opinion is.

REMARKS OF G. W. SWAN, NORWICH, CONN.

In taking up my work over eight years ago, I found everything comparatively easy to dispose of except these married vagabonds, who hid behind the wife and flock of little children. I consulted the law, and found there was plenty of law; but the application was not such as to remedy the evil. Such men are often willing to enter a jail, and be well fed and kept warm, and, as a general thing, have nothing to do but read trashy literature, leaving their families to starve or be supported by towns or by benevolent people. I awoke one morning with a determination to see what I could do toward making the law a means to an end. I visited the judge of our city court, and laid my plan before him. I said to him: "I find that in your administration of justice in this court, from time to time, you suspend judgment in the cases of certain men. I want these men to understand that the next time they are presented to this court for non-support of their families, instead of giving them from thirty to sixty days, you will give them the full penalty of the law, and then allow me to give them an opportunity to choose between two things."

"Go ahead," said the judge, "and we will see what we can accomplish."

The first case to come up was a Scotchman. I had seen him in the prisoner's dock time and again. He had a wife and four little children, was a skilled workman, and able to earn three dollars a day. He expected to get his usual thirty days. His wife would get two dollars and a half a week in coal, and they would try to work the Charity Organization Society for some help. The man was proved guilty, and it was then the opportunity to try my experiment. I walked over to him, and said: "Dave, you are here again; and I will engage that you will get six months this time." He changed color: he did not like that.

"Now," I said, "wouldn't you like to turn round and be a better man, support yourself respectably and take care of your family?"

"What can a fellow do," he asked, "when every one hates him?"

"Well," I said, "if I will stand by and be your friend, will you do as I want you to?" He said that he would. I had had some blanks printed that read: "Mr. ———: Please pay to G. W. Swan the money due me for wages for the next six months," or "a year," or "during my employment." I filled that out, "Pay all the wages due David ———," and he signed it. I presented the signed document to the judge of the court, and made a plea for the suspension of judgment for sixty days. I gave a little bond for the man's appearance, and he went to work. When pay-day came, I took his money; and that money did not go into the family, to be got away from the wife by threats or coaxing. I adopted the system of tickets, sending her to the grocery store, allowing a limited amount of groceries to be received,—so many dollars' worth a week. A similar arrangement was made with the butcher and with all those from whom David's necessaries were bought. If something were wanted from the dry-goods store, a special order was given for that. We kept a strict book account, and at the end of each month we called the man in and rendered an account to him of what had been spent. That man to-day is the best man in the employ of C. F. Rogers & Co. His home at that time was anything but cheerful. The condition of affairs had made his wife a scold. There were no carpets on the floors, the furniture was broken, there was only an apology for a stove, and the equipment of the larder was mainly empty whiskey bottles. Go in to-day, and you will find five rooms nicely furnished, five children — for another one has come into the home — well cared for, well clothed, and four of them in school; and, above all, you will find a happy wife. They attend church, and the children go to Sunday-school; and the man has a snug little bank account.

We have handled between four and five hundred such men in the last four years; and I have personally received over fifty thousand dollars of the earnings of these men, and have applied it to the needs of their families. It has been an interesting experience to step into the court-room Saturday morning, and see the men in line waiting for their cases to be called as the sixty days expired. If I ask for further suspension of judgment, it is always granted. When a man sees the advantage of the better way of living, and applies himself to follow that way, keeping away from the saloon and caring for his family, he is again trusted with his own wages; and we have very few that lapse into the old way. What has been the result with regard to the dispensing of charities in the town? That is an important part. Take the report of our selectmen, and I will show you that in 1887 the amount of aid to the outside poor was almost twenty-three thousand dollars. You know what the past two or

three years have been,— how severe the circumstances of the unemployed. All these things have been against us, but there has been a constant decrease in this direction; and two years ago it was only a trifle over ten thousand dollars instead of twenty-three thousand. We have a population of about twenty-six thousand, nearly half foreign. We have a large number of manufactories; but the larger part of these men who become delinquent and dissipated are skilled mechanics, good workmen, and whole-hearted fellows. The manufacturers are glad to give them employment, for they can have confidence in them. They can make good wages. We put the man on his good behavior, and he usually finds his own work. We do not relieve him of the burden of finding work, though we may help him. If he is not skilled, we may get something for him to do on the electric road or in labor for the street. If men refuse to take the opportunity that is given them, we let the law take its course.

We have an employment bureau for women, and the ladies give their services in cutting garments and letting the women make them.

Once in a while a man does go away; but the only responsibility that falls upon us is to settle the matter, if it is tested by the judge, for actual costs. The case is *nolle prossed* without costs at the end of sixty days. As a general thing, the actual costs are demanded,— about two dollars and thirty-one cents. We have little trouble in that direction.

REMARKS BY JUDGE WAYLAND.

One great trouble has been alluded to this afternoon,— the shiftless husband. I do not think the shiftless wife has entered as largely into our field as the shiftless husband. One great trouble has been to know how to aid the wife of the drunken husband who is kept in jail, possibly thirty days, and comes home to find his wife taking care of herself and the children without charity. When he comes back, he immediately gets hold of the money she has earned, and gets drunk; and this thing goes on over and over again, until the poor woman is reduced to despair and often to drink. Now, of course, the fundamental trouble is the saloon. Undoubtedly, in the millennium the saloon will disappear; but I doubt whether any of us, even the youngest of us, will live to see the millennium. What is the next thing to be done, then? Why, to do away with that monstrous folly of sending men over and over and over again, fifty, seventy-five, a hundred, a hundred and twenty-five times, to a jail, where there is not a single reformatory influence, and where at the end of thirty days they come out with a raging appetite for drink, and on the way from the jail to their wretched home they pass twenty saloons. I once heard a woman say, "I can go by eight liquor saloons, but the ninth fetches me." Well, the poor wretch was not so much to blame as she might be.

The most puzzling problem has been to know how to aid wisely when the husband is a habitual drunkard. It is no use to quarrel with the wife's reluctance to appear before the magistrates, because you must alter female nature, which is not always considered the easiest thing in the world to do, before you can make any changes in that respect; and, under limitations, it is a benign influence. I do not think husbands generally would encourage the habit of wives making complaints against them, even the best of us. I do not know whether it is necessary for the officers of the Charity Organization Society to be cowards about prosecuting. There is no such cowardice in this community. Our agent is vigilant, fearless, ubiquitous, and, with the aid of the police, very nearly omnipotent in such cases. And that reminds me to say something which is not necessary, perhaps; but it is of the utmost importance that an agent should be in perfect accord with the magistrate and with the police justice. If he is not, try to find some one who is. It is absolutely necessary that he should have the confidence of the police, the magistrates, and the local officials who have charge of the poor. If we have had any success (and there are those who think we have not been flagrantly unsuccessful), it has been largely on that account. Our workers are in cordial sympathy and co-operation with all the officials of the town. There is no jealousy, no suspicion, no friction.

THE BEAUTY OF SERVICE.

REMARKS BY MRS. ALICE N. LINCOLN, OF BOSTON.

I am very glad to say a word in regard to the beauty and holiness of service. "I serve" is the motto of the Christian and the warrior. It is because in the kind of work I am interested in, service is rendered on both sides, that I think it is of special value. I am sure that I never go to one of my tenement houses without feeling that there is a great deal that the tenants do for me in return for the little that I am able to do for them. I wish I could tell you, in the time that is allotted to me, of the hundred little ways in which they show their willingness to help. I have been very much impressed by it. They look out for my interest in a way I never would have supposed they would take the trouble to do. If a window-pane is broken, they go to the carpenter immediately to ask him to see that it is repaired. If a sink is stopped up, as often happens, they will take care that the plumber is notified; and in numberless ways they look out for the welfare of the house. I find I always receive the kindest and most friendly greeting when I go to see the tenants. It is never "Oh, why are you here again?" the feeling is always "We are so glad to have you come," just as if they were personal

friends. That is why the work is so very pleasant. I have had some tenants for fifteen years, and I should be very much surprised if they were not as much interested in anything that happens to me as I am in anything that happens to them. Again and again, when anything has been said publicly concerning matters in which they knew I was interested, they have saved the papers for me to see the next day, saying, "Did you see this?" with the greatest zeal and interest, knowing I would care for it. When I went to Europe, one of my tenants kept a number of daily papers while I was gone, because she thought I wouldn't know what was happening while I was away.

I think I was asked especially to speak about tenement-house work, but I want to speak also of work in connection with public institutions. Some of my tenants became paupers through no fault of their own; and, when I went to see them in the almshouse, and found they were unhappy there, I felt that other people like them might also be unhappy in almshouses. I thought I would tell you a little story that I have told once before in Boston, of a poor woman who, when I was going through the ward of our almshouse at Long Island, called me to her hurriedly, saying, "I want to speak to you"; and this is what she said: "I know I am dying, but I don't want to die here." She asked me if I could get her moved. I told her it was a difficult matter, because she was in the extreme stages of consumption, but I would see what I could do. I went to the Channing Home, a most excellent private institution in Boston; and they consented to receive that woman. She was perfectly happy there, notwithstanding all the suffering occasioned by her dreadful disease. She was happy because she was treated with kindness and consideration. She had been all her life a self-supporting woman; and it was because she longed for this loving, tender service at the last that she appreciated it so much. At Christmas she sent for me, saying, "I want to ask you for something." I wondered what it was, and felt that I should be only too delighted to get it for her. When I found out what it was, it was this: she said, "The matron and the nurses have been so kind to me here, and I cannot make any return to them; but I wish you would get me some little thing that I might give to them for Christmas." The week before she died she sent for me again, and told me how perfectly happy she had been in this institution because of the kindness and love shown to her there. She added, "I want you to think of me always as a grateful woman." I am sure one such experience as that shows what the personal element may be in the lives of people who perhaps haven't any too much of it in their downward path, especially if it ends in a pauper institution.

Before I close, I cannot help referring to a man who of all others seems to me in England to stand as a representative of the value of personal service,— the Earl of Shaftesbury. I do not think any of us can remember the record of his life without feeling that it was de-

voted to the service of others from the beginning to the close. There is no man in England or America whose memory should be more honored.

Just one more thing: in any true charity I think the note of self-consciousness ought to be entirely lacking. I was afraid, perhaps, from what I said the other day I might seem to reflect upon the college settlements; and I don't mean to at all, because really splendid work is done in some of them. The spirit that actuated Edward Denison in his work in London, the spirit that actuates Miss Addams in Chicago, the spirit that we find in our own Mr. Robert A. Woods of Boston, cannot be too highly commended. It was only that I was a little afraid that sometimes we might find in the work of those who go among the poor that note of self-consciousness, which among the poor themselves, I think, is singularly lacking. I have occasion, as you know, to go to my tenement houses very frequently; and I see people who don't know that I am coming, don't know at all what is going to be expected of them, and I find them doing many little kindnesses to one another. For instance, I found one of my tenants had suddenly been taken extremely ill, and one of her neighbors had sat up all night and done everything for her; and when I said to this woman, "Why don't you let me get a nurse?" she replied instantly, "Oh, I like to do it." Just before I left Boston I went into another room, and found a poor woman, who lives entirely alone, sick in bed with bronchitis. A kind neighbor had just brought her a cup of broth, and was watching and tending her faithfully. These are the things the poor are doing every day and hour, and they don't want to be thanked for it. There is no feeling of self-consciousness or of anything but that it is just right for them to do it; and that is the sort of feeling we ought to try to cultivate, and learn it from them, if we haven't it to start with. We have their example before our eyes daily. To serve is the highest and noblest duty that any of us can have.

Miss De Graffenried.— I would like to ask Mrs. Lincoln to tell us a little about her method of dealing with her tenants in the way of improvements, not giving them everything at once, but making them deserve each new addition to their quarters.

Mrs. Lincoln.— I am happy to say that that is a very simple matter indeed. We believe in encouraging the people to, we might say, benefit themselves. If I find tenants are doing remarkably well, and need a little encouragement, I say, "Wouldn't you like to have a little fresh paint?" And perhaps they will say, "Yes"; and I will say, "If you will put it on, I am very glad to furnish the paint." And in that way the house is brightened and freshened up. We have always found that it was not wise to do everything at once. I remember I learned that from the experience of a landlord who said to me that he had repaired and cleaned and papered his houses and turned the people in, and he was surprised to find at the end of a

few months that the houses were just as bad and neglected as they had been in the beginning. It is a good deal better to give them the benefit gradually, and also to let them feel that one takes an interest in the things that they earn. They are glad to earn the right to have the rooms more comfortable, and we are glad to give it to them. There comes in the personal side. It is because of something they have done that they are entitled to these better and pleasanter surroundings. The general conditions of the house should be looked after. We always repair the roof and drains, and see that the premises are in good sanitary condition; and they can afford to wait for some of the minor matters, which mean a great deal to the tenants because they relate to the attractiveness of the rooms. We have one woman who always likes a blue paper; and, when her room is going to be papered, she is sure to say to me, "Be sure that you get blue," and I try to find the prettiest paper I can. I always choose the papers for my houses. We all like to have people take an interest in us and what we do. The tenants are in no wise different from ourselves.

PERSONAL SERVICE ON THE PART OF DIRECTORS.

REMARKS BY MR. ALEXANDER JOHNSON.

First, let us ask, what charity organization societies usually do in the way of general visiting and supervision of the public and private charitable institutions. In the charity organization societies that I have been connected with we usually found that a majority of our directors and board of visitors were engaged in other departments of charitable work. If they would do their whole duty as volunteers, as unpaid members of the society, there is no doubt that this general visitation and supervision would be done very fully. We have all, I suppose, been met with the difficulty of getting unofficial societies and institutions to examine official ones about the precise thing they are organized for. I think I took it upon myself to say at one public meeting of the Associated Charities that, when a society refuses a case for which it is organized,— as, for instance, a hospital refuses to take in a sick child, or if a relief society refuses to extend relief in a proper case,— that society, church, or institution is bankrupt, and ought to wind up its affairs and go out of business. That is to say, if we undertake to do a certain amount of business, no matter what it is, we are under obligations to the public to aid every case of that kind that comes to us. A favorite answer of a relief society to me has been, "We would very much like to do this work, but we really haven't the funds." I happen to know that very frequently that story is not true, but, if it is true, that society should either collect more money and have the funds, or go out of business.

But the particular point that I wished to speak about was not so much this unofficial supervision as the need of more real work of our unpaid directors and trustees. After a good many years' experience as a paid agent of the Charity Organization Society, I am now an unpaid member of the board of directors. I think I am, therefore, in a position to speak of it from both sides. The difficulty that the agents labor under often, is not only that they have to supply the machinery, the special knowledge, the regular, systematic, business-like attention to the duties of their office, but to supply the energy behind it as well; not only to energize their own work, but to energize the work of their directors and trustees. Not only do they have to be the engine and the wheels and the cranks, and all the rest of it, but they absolutely have to be the coal in the fire-box. And that is the hardest thing to supply, and that is where they break down. The mental energy and true charity in the heart that prompt the work of charity organizations, of every charity society worth the name, must be kept up and supplied by the unpaid members of the board of directors and by the friendly visitors.

Let the agent be called upon for the official part of the work definitely, and let us keep a good reserve supply of energy. Let us urge him on in the right way, and not disqualify his efforts by lack of hearty, wholesale support. I do not know of anything that is needed more in the societies that I have been connected with than that very thing on the part of the directors and trustees. That applies not only to the boards of directors of charity organization societies, but it applies to trustees of public institutions. We very often find that a paid man, the person who is doing the work, has all that to do. He has not the strong moral and mental support that he is entitled to.

FRIENDLY VISITING.

REMARKS BY JUDGE WAYLAND.

I never have been a friendly visitor. What I know about this matter, or perhaps more safely what I think I know, has been based almost entirely on observation, and almost not at all on experience. And let me say that, in talking about this matter, I am considering solely the relation between the charity organization and the poor people whom it seeks to befriend. I am not talking about tenement houses or any modern phase of relief work. I am only talking about the old-fashioned charity organization as it exists to-day. Now there are two or three aspects in which we can look at this: in the first place, dealing with poor people, what they want, what they need, and how best they can be supplied with what they need. Now, what do they want? They want everything that they haven't got; they want to be saved from work; they want to be saved from earn-

ing; they want to be saved, above all things, from cleanliness; they want to live as they have been living, without effort. Now, it would be easy enough, not for me, perhaps, but for our agent, to give a dozen cases of the rose-colored poor, what you may call the prismatic poor. So taking friendly visitors, we could give isolated cases here and there of friendly visitors who had shown themselves adequate to their position, and have endeared themselves to the rose-colored paupers, and who had really done a charming work. But we should forget then the long and almost endless procession of unsuccessful visitors who have done the people really more harm than they have done them good,— not, perhaps, in their own judgment, but in the judgment of on-lookers, who are perhaps heartless, hide-bound, but from whom, perhaps, all intelligence has not been absolutely eliminated.

Now, what do the poor need? They need above all things instruction vastly more than relief. They need to be taught better cooking, better sanitary habits, better customs as to clothing, better care of their children on the same means, or want of means, if you choose, that they have; and they want to be taught it by the people who know what they are talking about. These people have a good deal of worldly wisdom, and, if the amiable, accomplished young lady waltzes into the house and asks a dozen questions, they are tempted to reply somewhat scornfully; and at all events they lose all interest. There are too many cases like the college girl who asked the farmer's wife, after a great many questions, why the cows were crowded so close in the yard where they came to be milked; and the tired woman said, "Why, ma'am, that is to give condensed milk." Now, that is the sort of a reply that a good many of these paupers are tempted to make to the questions that are asked them. The fact is disclosed almost instantly that the people don't know what they are talking about, and while they are getting an education the cause of true charity is being very much harmed. Now there is no question about that in the minds of heartless men.

Now, how shall this want be supplied? I ought not to omit this: that the first attempt of the poor family, the visited family, is to see what can be got in the way of pecuniary supplies out of the visitor; and every effort and ingenuity is expended in that effort. If there is any ingenuity left, it is expended in concealing the fact from the visitor that they don't need any relief. They are prevented from looking under the bed to see the supply of wood, they are prevented from looking into the cupboard to see the supply of food there.

Now, to a very large extent, voluntary effort is wasted effort unless it is extremely well directed. I have no doubt that many persons here will rise to annihilate me when I sit down, but there may be one or two who think that what I say is not absolutely saturated with idiocy. Now, what do we want? What do some of us think we want? Persons adequately, not largely, paid; persons in whom

benevolence, charity, love, of their fellows, enters in as a very large element, who don't do it for the revenue there is in it, but who do it for the good they can accomplish; persons who have sufficient training as nurses to be able to go into the sick-room and tell the people exactly what is wanted, and show them how to do it and set them the example of learning; people who know enough about cooking to show what wasteful blunders are made in the cooking in the kitchens of the dependent class; persons who know enough about sanitation and of the rules which go to make up the well-ordered household, even though a poor household, to show how it can be done, with patience and kindness and Christian love; ready to ask and answer any questions that the circumstances seem to call for. Now, I think all experience has shown that the general agent of charity, the person who distributes relief, who makes investigation, must be a paid official. It does not at all follow that a paid official is going to degenerate and develop into a machine. I know the contrary is true in a great many cases. Of course, if you haven't a good man at the head as agent, the whole thing would be a failure: it would be under the best scheme you can devise. If he is not the right man, get rid of him and get somebody else. But our experience here — and our experience extends over nearly twenty years, with sporadic and spasmodic efforts of friendly visitors, with the very best intentions — has resulted in flagrant failure.

REMARKS BY MR. ROBERT TREAT PAINE.

There were one or two concessions that Judge Wayland made that I seize upon with eagerness. It seems to me, really, that the reply rests in conceding most of his claims, and seizing upon what he has admitted in behalf of our side

Miss Octavia Hill, I think, would take the ground as strongly as anybody can that the friendly visitor should not give physical relief. We quoted those words of hers in our charity work in Boston; and, practically, nobody has taken an appeal from their wisdom. And, if the friendly visitor is going into the houses of the poor people, he or she should go prohibited from giving any relief, lest, if she can give relief, the thoughts of the poor people shall be turned in that direction. Therefore, I should concede that, as a rule,— and every rule has a good exception,— the relief should be given by trained experts. Then, if we accept that as common ground, what is there left to the friendly visitor? Well, almost everything except that; and it covers a great deal of beautiful ground. How can I, a man that have only visited in common, rough ways, describe the charms and influences and beautiful results of friendly visiting? The first case I had was of a grandfather and grandmother, aged of course, and a man, a soldier, who had his leg injured in one of our naval engagements, and had a running sore, so that, while a printer able

to earn while working fourteen dollars a week, he could not work. They had a nice little boy, fourteen years old, who was a hoodlum on the street. This was the story; and, after I visited that case the second time, the wonderful thought occurred to me as a friendly visitor, Send that man as a patient to the hospital, and have him cured. I gave him a note, and he went down ten days, and was cured; and, I think, the city government paid eight or ten dollars a week to his family. The overseers of the poor were making that man and his grandfather and grandmother paupers. But just that least attempt of the friendly thought of the friendly visitor put him on his feet again,—the simplest possible case. That is the minimum of what the friendly visitor can give. In my judgment, this work of friendly visiting has got to permeate life. It is going to begin, and go on and have no limit, until it has gone to the lowest limits of human nature and human life. We want our churches to train us, I say, the women and men, too, if you are to be friendly visitors, to know your duty, and do it and delight in doing it.

I do not see how there is any escape from the conclusion that either modern life, civilized life in great cities, has got to fall asunder, so the rich and poor shall not know or care for each other or do anything but hate each other, or else we have got to go to the other extreme, in which the rich, those who are rich and can command their time, even if it be only a small portion of it, shall do their part in the world, and in devoting that part of the time that they can command more or less to making life neighborly and happy, to bridging over this chasm, and to teach the poor, if they can, to cook and to keep a clean house, and have everything neat and wholesome and sanitary. On the whole, the most important duty of all, in my judgment, is not to give them physical relief, but to exercise that cheer and counsel which are so much needed everywhere.

REMARKS BY DR. JAMES WALK, OF PHILADELPHIA.

There is a work for the volunteer and a work for the paid officer; and the volunteer must be of a peculiar kind, and the paid officer must be of a peculiar kind. I do not care how far the rich and poor are spread apart or driven apart: in our modern civilization there are men and women whose natures are broad enough to bridge it; and, when one's nature is broad enough, there is no separation. Of course, if you get a young girl or an elderly lady who has not that peculiar talent, she will not make a great success.

Now there is a function often suggested,—the teaching of the family, the teaching of cooking, and the teaching of housekeeping; but there is another function outside of that altogether which the good visitor can perform, which often is of incalculable value, and that simply is bringing in the cheer and the comfort and the lovableness of one who has more sunshine in her life than the person whom

she visits. I have known lots of ladies, and I do not remember that any of them taught me to cook or keep house; but yet I have derived the greatest benefit from their association. I say, sir, that I have known in our own Philadelphia work visitors who were not expert in the way of giving instruction, but who have by their cheerful, joyous natures — of course, they were not self-conscious, and they did not set themselves up as superior — gone to visit in a neighborly way, and told little incidents of their experience, and talked with the poor woman and her children in a way that made those afternoons and evenings the most delightful afternoons and evenings in their lives for bright sunshine.

Now, a word as to the paid agent: there seems to be a notion in our discussion that the paid agent comes from some far-off land away from where the poor live. That is not so certainly in Philadelphia. We talk about college settlements, about young ladies and gentlemen from the colleges and universities going in and living among the poor and learning how they live. Our paid agents, most of them, have always known how the poor live, because they are poor people themselves. I do not mean that they are at the very bottom round; but they have always been obliged to practise those minute and careful economies, and as long as we do not give them any better salaries than we do now they will have to practise them. I will just say this: If you will take the salaries that are paid to the district agents and superintendents of the organized charities and associated charities, I defy any one without the practice of the closest economies to make ends meet. Our agents are not very far away from the poor; and, when they go into the homes of the poor, they do not feel as if some foreigner was going there. They feel as if a neighbor was going there: that makes their way very easy. But, of course, they cannot spread themselves over the vast ground of the work in a large city. And, therefore, we want more volunteer help.

We have great encouragement for the future in the acquisitions of the past. Of course there is outside of us a great work to be done. There is the work of better tenements, better water, better streets, all those things that attention has been called to. There are a thousand good things which the world needs and which I hope the world will get; but, in recognizing all these things, do not let us forget the great work that we have accomplished. We have a right to the satisfaction of remembering it; and do not let us go away discouraged, feeling that nothing is done because there is yet a great deal to do. There has been a grand work done in the last fifteen years by organized charity in this country; and I hope that those of us who have consecrated our lives to that noble enterprise will take to our hearts the consolation that we have made some progress, that we have not labored in vain, that our work is still as important now as it was fifteen years ago, that that work is just as true and as good, and that none of the new and model schemes have at all supplanted the advantages of organized charities.

TREASURER'S STATEMENT.

JOHN M. GLENN, TREASURER, *in account with* NATIONAL CONFERENCE OF CHARITIES AND CORRECTION:

1894.	*Dr.*		
May 21.	To Balance in bank		$938.63
	To Cash received proceeds of sales of Nineteenth (1892) and previous reports		106.72
	To Cash received proceeds of sale of Twentieth (1893) Report, from State Boards of		
	Minnesota, 100 copies	$112.50	
	New York, 50 copies	56.25	
	Indiana, 50 copies	56.25	
	From sundry sales	251.00	476.00
	To Cash received proceeds of sales of Twenty-first (1894) Report, from State Boards of		
	Michigan, 100 copies	$112.50	
	Massachusetts, 50 copies	56.25	
	New York, 50 copies	56.25	
	Colorado, 10 copies	13.50	
	From sundry sales	414.43	652.93
	To Cash received membership fees:—		
	Twenty-first Conference		334.00
	Twenty-second Conference		962.00
	Twenty-third Conference		14.00
	To Cash received from Local Committee, Nashville		500.00
	To Cash received interest on deposits to Jan. 1, 1895		28.22
			$4,012.50
	To Balance in bank		$1,197.48

Cr.

By Cash paid account of Twentieth Conference:—		
Mrs. H. M. Craig, copies of back reports	$21.25	
Geo. H. Ellis, postage and expressage	15.40	$36.65
Amount carried forward		$36.65

Amount brought forward			$36.65
By Cash paid account Twenty-first Conference: —			
A. C. Wright, Secretary, postage		$174.00	
Mrs. Isabel C. Barrows, reporting and editing	$210.00		
Travelling expenses	56.00		
Postage	5.00	271.00	
Tracy, Gibbs & Co., printing circulars, etc.		109.50	
Friedenwald Co., printing receipts		2.40	
Geo. H. Ellis, 2,000 copies of report of 402 pages, including composition, paper, presswork, electrotyping, heliotype portrait, etc.	$1,107.08		
Sending 1,800 copies	324.00	1,431.08	
John Murphy & Co., printing circulars	$21.80		
Postage	21.60	43.40	
Addressing circulars and postage		17.15	
Geo. H. Ellis, express and postage to May 1, 1895		106.63	2,155.16
By Cash paid account of Twenty-second Conference: —			
James H. Humphrey, insurance premium on reports in stock to Sept. 11, 1895		$6.35	
H. H. Hart, Corresponding Secretary, account of salary		200.00	
For printing and stationery		180.60	
For postage and telegrams		236.26	623.21
By Balance in Provident Savings Bank			1,197.48
			$4,012.50

(E. & O. E.) JOHN M. GLENN.

MAY 24, 1895.

Copies of Proceedings of the National Conference of Charities and Correction on hand Oct. 31, 1895: —

1874,	134 paper			1887,	37 cloth	270 paper	
1877,	20 "			1888,	75 "	35 "	
1878,	17 "			1889,	341 "	415 "	
1881,	33 "			1890,	9 "	190 "	
1882,	40 "			1891,	226 "	27 "	
1883,	64 "			1892,	220 "	254 "	
1884,	145 "			1893,	236 "		
1885,	14 cloth	2 paper		1894,	562 "		
1886,	22 "	38 "					

LIST OF MEMBERS.

* Members in attendance at the New Haven meeting of the Conference.
(LC) Members enrolled by the Local Committee at New Haven.

ALABAMA.

Livingston.

Tutwiler, Miss Julia S.

ARKANSAS.

Little Rock.

Comstock, Rev. Davillo W., State Supt., Chdn.'s Home Soc. of Arkansas, 113 Markham St.

CALIFORNIA.

Eldridge.

Osborne, A. E., M.D., Supt., California Home Feeble-minded Chdn.

Ione.

Bank, E. Carl, Supt., Preston Sch. of Industry.

Los Angeles.

Lindley, Walter, M.D., ex-Supt., Whittier State Sch.

Oakland.

Borland, Sarah C., Director, Assoc. Char.; Pres. Alameda Co. W. C. T. U., 1157 Franklin St.
McLean, Rev. John Knox, D.D., Pres. Pacific Theol. Seminary, 520 13th St.
Wendte, Rev. Chas. W., Hotel Metropole.

Palo Alto.

Warner, Amos G., Prof. of Economics, Leland Stanford University.

Pasadena.

Conger, Rev. E. L., D.D., Sec'y, Char. Org. Soc., 44 Orange Grove Ave.

San Bernardino.

Dolan, A. Stanley, M.D., Asst. Physician, Southern Cal. State Asyl.

San Francisco.

Assoc. Char. of San Francisco.
Brown, Charlotte B., M.D., 1212 Sutter St.
Cooper, Mrs. Sarah B., Golden Gate Kindergarten Ass'n, 1902 Vallejo St.
Davis, Horace, 1800 Broadway.
George, Miss Julia, 729 Sutter St.
Wadham, L., 530 California St.

Santa Paula.

Blanchard, Nathan W.

South Riverside.

Barber, Rio D., M.D., Health Officer, Riverside Co.

Whittier.

* Coffin, Bertha S.
* Coffin, John E., Supt., Whittier State School.

COLORADO.

Boulder.

Baker, James H., Pres., State Univ.
Williams, Mrs. Harriet E., Sec'y, Bd. of Co. Visitors; Co. Supt., Chdn.'s Home Soc.

Buena Vista.

McDonald, J. A., Warden, Col. State Reformatory.
Root, Rev. Edw. P., Chaplain, State Reformatory.

Canon City.

Lutts, Mrs. R. F., Supt., Prison Dept., W. C. T. U.

Colorado Springs.

Rev. W. F. Slocum, Jr., Pres., State Bd. of Char. and Cor.; Pres., Colo. College.

Delta.

Brown, Hezekiah.

Denver.

* Appel, J. S., Member, State Bd. of Char. and Cor.
* Beaver, Ida N., M.D., Member, State Bd. of Char. and Cor., 603 22d Ave.
Belford, Mrs. Frances, Member, State Bd. of Char. and Cor., 1323 Evans St.
* Gabriel, J. H., Sec'y, State Bd. of Char. and Cor.
* George, Mrs. Izetta, Sec'y, Char. Org. Soc., 32 Court House.
Hayt, Chas. D., Pres., Chdn.'s Home Soc. of Col., 1533 Downing Ave.
Likens, Mrs. Sadie M. W., Police Matron.
McIntyre, A. W., Governor; Member, *ex officio*, State Bd. of Char. and Cor.
Mills, J. Warner, Vice-Pres., State Bd. of Char. and Cor., 904 Equitable Bldg.
* Wheeler, B. A., M.D., Member, State Bd. of Char. and Cor., 1441 Stout St.

Golden.

Garard, G. A., Supt., Indus. Sch. for Boys.

Pueblo.

Adams, Alva.
Newton, Rev. E. P.

CONNECTICUT.

Bridgeport.

* Bullard, Mrs. Wm. S., Chairman, Conf. of Char., Y W. C. A., 6 Courtland Pl.
* Omans, Mrs. J. C., Pres., Assoc. Char., 20 Courtland St.

Hartford.

*Ayers, Mrs. Elizabeth Sluyter, Asst. Supt. Union for Home Work, 239 Market St.
*Cleaveland, F. E., Sec'y, Bd. of Education for the Blind; State Delegate, R. 73, State Capitol.
*Eggleston, Mrs. A. F., State Visitor, Conn. Indus. Sch. for Girls; Director, Char. Org. Soc., 745 Main St.
*Foster, Mrs. Emily Wells, Asst. Sec'y, Bd. of Education for the Blind, R. 73, Capitol.
*Green, D. I., Supt., Char. Org. Soc.; State Delegate, 234 Pearl St.
*Griswold, Miss Josephine, Clerk, Exec. Com. Conn. Chdn.'s Aid Soc., 18 Gardner Bldg.
*Hall, Miss Mary, Member, State Bd. of Char.; State Delegate.
Hartranft, Chester D., D.D., Pres., Hartford Theol. Seminary; Pres., Sch. of Sociology.
Howe, Harmon G., M.D., Exec. Com., Hartford Hosp.
*Huntington, Rev. John T., Pres., Chdn.'s Aid Soc.
*Jones, Fred'k R., Asst. Supt., Char. Org. Soc.
*McCook, Prof. J. J., Director, Char. Org. Soc.; State Delegate, 114 Main St.
Merriam, Alexander R., Prof. in Hartford Theological Seminary; Director, Char. Org. Soc.
*Miller, B. N. B., Supt., Open Hearth Ass'n, 135 Front St.
*Plumer, Persis M., Lady Supt., Training Sch. for Nurses, 20 Hudson St.
Sluyter, Elizabeth Lee, Supt., Union for Home Work, 239 Market St.
*Sluyter, Miss Laura H., Pres., Friendly Visitors of Union for Home Work, 239 Market St.
*Smead, E. B., Prin., Watkinson Juvenile Asyl.; State Delegate, 394 Park St.
*Smith, Mrs. Virginia T., 39 Imlay St.
*Williams, Job, Prin., the Amer. Sch. for the Deaf.
*Woods, Katharine Pearson, Head Worker, Social Settlement, 15 North St.

Lakeville.

*Knight, Geo. H., M.D., Supt., Conn. Sch. for Imbeciles; State Delegate.
*Knight, Mrs. Geo. H., Conn. Sch. for Imbeciles.
*Knight, Mrs. Mary F., Conn. Sch. for Imbeciles.

Meriden.

Tracy, Dr. A. W., Pres., State Bd. of Char.; State Delegate.

Middletown.

*Fairbank, Wm. G., Supt., Conn. Indus. Sch. for Girls; State Delegate.
*Fairbank, Mrs. W. G., Asst. Supt., Conn. Indus. Sch. for Girls; State Delegate.
*Whittlesey, H. C., Sec'y, State Bd. of Char.; State Delegate.
Wilcox, Wm. W.

New Britain.

Finch, Alfred S., Agt., Char. Org., 58 W. Main St.

New Haven.

*Adler, Max, Director, Org. Char. Ass'n. (LC.).
*Alling, J. W. (LC.)
*Anderson, J. C. (LC.)
*Bacon, Mrs. Francis, Member, Exec. Com. Chdn.'s Aid Soc. and Conn. Training Sch. for Nurses, 32 High St.
*Bacon, Miss Rebekah G., Member, State Bd. of Char.; State Delegate.
*Baldwin, Henry, Custodian of Amer. Hist., Library Americana, 607 Whitney Ave.
*Baldwin, S. E. (LC.)
*Barnes, E. Henry. (LC.)
*Barnes, T. A., Chamber of Commerce. (LC.)
*Bennett, T. G., Director, Org. Char. Ass'n; State Delegate. (LC.)
*Bennett, Mrs. T. G. (LC.)
*Betts, Miss Emily, Sec'y, Training Sch. for Nurses, 3 Hillhouse Ave.
*Bishop, G. H. (LC.)
*Blackman, William F., Prof. of Christian Ethics, Yale Univ.; Director, Char. Org. Soc.
*Bollmann, Charles F., Pres., Bd. of State Prison Directors; State Delegate, 82 Church St.
*Bowditch, E. B. (LC.)
*Bradley, E. E. (LC.)
*Bradley, F. S. (LC.)
*Brewer, Prof. Wm. H., Pres., State Bd. of Health; Mgr. Temporary Home for Neglected Chdn. of New Haven Co., 418 Orange St.
*Bristol, E. S. (LC.)
*Bristol, Stoddard & Bristol. (LC.)
*Brown, F. M., & Co. (LC.)
*Brown, Robert, Sec'y, Yale Observatory.
*Brown, Robert A. (LC.)
*Bunnell, F. B., Treas., Org. Char. Ass'n. (LC.)
*Butler, Geo. A. (LC.)
*Carmalt, William H., M.D., Prof. of Surgery, Yale Univ.; Director and Surgeon, New Haven Hosp.
*Carrington, John B. (LC.)
*Corcoran, Rev. Jno. F., Treas., St. Francis Orph. Asyl.; State Delegate, Box 1477.
*Cowles, Mrs. Timothy, Treas., Home for the Friendless; Director, Org. Char. Ass'n, P.O. Box 817.
*Curtis, G. W. (LC.)
*Dana, Mrs. James D., 24 Hillhouse Ave.
*Day, W. F. (LC.)
*De Forest, A. W. (LC.)
*Dexter, Mrs. F. B., Pres., Soc. of United Workers; Director, Org. Char. Ass'n, 178 Prospect St.
*Douglas, W. H., Calvary Indus. Home. (LC.)
*Downs, Wm. E., Director, Org. Char. Ass'n. (LC.)
*Dwight, Timothy, D.D., Pres., Yale Univ. (LC.)
*English, B. R. (LC.)
*English, Henry F. (LC.)
*English, L. H. (LC.)
*Farnam, Henry W., Prof., Yale Univ.; Director, Org. Char. Ass'n; State Delegate.
*Fenn, Wallace B., 187 Church St.
*Fields, Wm. T. (LC.)
*Fisher, Irving, Asst. Prof. Political Econ., Yale Univ., 460 Prospect St.
*Fleischner, Mrs. Henry, 928 Grand Ave.
*Foot, E. I. (LC.)
*Ford, G. H. (LC.)
*Foy, James H. (LC.)
*Gibbons, Mrs. T. P. (LC.)
*Gilbert, Sam'l D., M.D., Director and Attending Physician, New Haven Hosp., 29 Wall St.
*Grant, G. M. (LC.)
*Greeley, E. S. (LC.)
*Harrison, Rev. Fosdick B., Asst. Pastor, Church of the Redeemer, Welcome Hall, 17 Oak St.
*Harrison, Lynde. (LC.)
*Hemingway, Sam'l. (LC.)
*Hendrick, A. C., Mayor of New Haven.
*Hill, A. B., Director, Org. Char. Ass'n. (LC.)
*Hillhouse, Miss. (LC.)
*Hooker, Frank H. (LC.)
*Hooker, T., Director, Org. Char. Ass'n. (LC.)
*Hotchkiss, Justus S. (LC.)
*Howe & Stetson. (LC.)

New Haven, *Continued*—

*Ketcham, T. (LC.)
Kimberly, A. H., Director, Org. Char. Ass'n. (LC.)
*Lines, Rev. Edwin S., Director, Org. Char., St. Paul's Church.
*Linsley, Dr. C. A., Sec'y, State Bd. of Health; State Delegate.
*Lowe, Walter I., Instructor in History, Sheffield Scientific Sch. of Yale Univ., 238 Whalley Ave.
*McDonald, Joseph. (LC.)
*McIntyre, E. (LC.)
*Mason, Herbert. (LC.)
*Mersick, C. S. (LC.)
*Mersick, E. F. (LC.)
*Merwin, S. E, Pres., New Haven Hosp. (LC.)
*Miller, W. E. (LC.)
*Morehouse, C. S. (LC.)
*Morris, L. B. (LC.)
*Neely, Wm. (LC.)
*Newcomb, Mrs. Geo. F., Sec'y, Bd. of Visitors, Co. Home of New Haven; Sec'y, Exec. Com. Conn Chdn.'s Aid Soc.; State Delegate, 90 York Sq.
*Osborne, A. D. (LC.)
*Peets, C. Berry. (LC.)
*Porter, F. S. (LC.)
*Porter, Joseph, Chairman, Com. Welcome Hall Mission, 215 Whitney Ave.
*Preston, Sherwood O., Agt., Org. Char. Ass'n; State Delegate, 200 Orange St.
*Read, Mrs. M. R. (LC.)
*Robertson, A. Heaton. (LC.)
*Salisbury, E. E. (LC.)
*Saunders, E. A., Director, Org. Char., 592 Chapel St.
*Shares, H. P. (LC.)
*Sheldon, Chas. A., Director, Org. Char. Ass'n.
*Shoninger, B. (LC.)
*Smith, C. C. (LC.)
*Sonnenberg, M. (LC.)
*Steinert, Morris. (LC.)
Stoddard, E. G. (LC.)
*Strong, Barnes, Hart & Co. (LC.)
*The C. Monson Co. (LC.)
*Van Winkle, Miss Annie M., Mgr., Mothers' Aid Soc., 80 Sachem St.
*Warren, H. C. (LC.)
*Wayland, Francis, Dean of Yale Law Sch.; Pres., Conn. Prison Aid Ass'n; Director, Org. Char. Ass'n; etc.
*Wayland, Mrs. Francis. (LC.)
*Welch, Pierce N.
*White, Geo. T. (LC.)
*White, Henry C., Director, Org. Char. Ass'n.
*White, H. D. (LC.)
*White, Oliver S. (LC.)
*White, Roger S. (LC.)
*Whitney, E. (LC.)
*Whitney, E., Jr., Director, Org. Char. Ass'n. (LC.)
*Winchester, Mrs. O. F. (LC.)

Norwich.

*Swan, Geo. W., Supt., City Missions.

Plantsville.

*Smith, Henry D., Pres., Bd. of Directors, Girls' Indus. Sch. at Middletown; State Delegate.

Putnam.

*Whitmore, Mrs. E. T., Sec'y, Bd. of Visitors, Windham Co. Temporary Home; State Delegate, 99 Elm St.

Rockville.

*James, Rev. Joseph H., Sec'y, Conn. Temperance Union, State Delegate.

Waterbury.

*Dickinson, Edward M., Supt., Directors, Christian Visitation and Char.; Sec'y, United Char., 15 Leavenworth St
*Kingsbury, F. J.
Wells, Thos. D., Member and Sec'y, Bd. of Directors, State Prison, 67 Chestnut Ave.

Willimantic.

*Pomeroy, C. B., Sheriff of Windham Co.; State Delegate.

DELAWARE.

Marshallton.

*Haines, H. E., Supt., Ferris Indus. Sch.

Wilmington.

Bancroft, Wm. P., Sec'y, Trustees, Delaware Hosp.
*Clark, Mary A. T., Supt., Assoc. Char., 421 Franklin St.
Palmer, Wilmer, Sec'y and Treas., Ferris Indus. Sch.
Taylor, Daniel W., Pres., Assoc. Char., 7 Market St.
Warner, Mrs. Emalia P., Assoc. Char., 1202 Delaware Ave.

DISTRICT OF COLUMBIA.

Washington.

Caywood, A. S., 933 9th St.
*Lewis, Herbert W., Agt, Bd. of Chdn.'s Guardians, 472 Louisiana Ave.
*MacDonald, Dr. Arthur, Specialist in the U. S. Bureau of Education.
Macfarland, Henry B. F., Cor. Sec'y for the Dist. of Columbia, 1406 G St.
McPherson, Jno. D., Vice-Pres., Bd. of Mgrs., Indus. Home Sch. of the Dist. of Columbia, 1623 28th St., N.W.
*Moore, Frederic L, Chairman, Com. on Char., Bd. of Trade, 1505 Penn. Ave.
Palmer, Miss Sophia, 212 1st Ave., N.E.
Pellew, Henry E., ex-Pres., N.Y. Ass'n for Improving the Condition of the Poor, 1637 Mass. Ave.
Spencer, Mrs. Sara A., Trustee, Nat'l Homœopathic Hosp.; Prin., Spencerian Business College.
*Tracy, John, U.S. Supt. of Char. for the Dist. of Columbia; Dist. Delegate, 464 Louisiana Ave.
Woodbury, Mrs. Anna L., Pres., Mission Sch. of Cookery and Housework, 1319 Mass. Ave.
Wright, Carroll D., Com. U.S. Dept. of Labor.

IDAHO.

Moscow.

Gault, Franklin B., Pres., Univ. of Idaho.

ILLINOIS.

Aurora.

Eurich, Mrs. E. F., Sec'y, Char. Council, 52 N. 4th St.

Carrollton.

McNabb, James M., Member, Bd. Pub. Char.

Centralia.

Andrews, D. W., Member, Bd. of Pub. Char.

Chicago.

Addams, Miss Jane, Hull House, 335 S. Halsted St.
Bettman, Boerne, M.D., Pres., State Bd. of Pub. Char., 34 Washington St.
Felton, Chas. E., P.O. Box 459.
Flower, Mrs. J. M., Illinois Training Sch. for Nurses, The Virginia.
Frank, Henry L., Pres., Jewish Training Sch. and Orph. Soc., 1608 Prairie Ave.
Fulcomer, Daniel, Lecturer in Sociology, Univ. of Chicago.
Henderson, Rev. Chas. R., D.D., Assoc. Prof. of Sociology, Univ. of Chicago.
Hobbs, Mrs. J. B., Mgr., Home for the Friendless, Nat'l Temperance Hosp., etc., 343 La Salle St.
Hoover, Rev. Geo. K., Gen'l Supt. Nat'l Chdn.'s Home Soc., 167 Dearborn St.
*Lathrop, Miss Julia C., State Comm'r Pub. Char., Hull House, 335 S. Halsted St.
Mack, Julian W., Sec'y, United Hebrew Char., 720 Stock Exchange Bldg.
Rosenberg, Jacob, Director, United Hebrew Char., 1620 Mich. Ave.
Rosenfeld, Maurice, United Hebrew Char., 76 5th Ave.
Rosenthal, Julius, German Old People's Home ("Altenheim"), Jewish Training Sch., etc., 3247 Wabash Ave.
Shortall, John G., Pres., Amer. Humane Ass'n and Ill. Humane Soc., 1600 Prairie Ave.
*Trusdell, Rev. C. G., D.D., Gen. Supt., Relief and Aid Soc., 51 La Salle St.

Evanston.

Caldwell, Wm., Prof. of Moral and Social Philosophy, North-western Univ.
Rice, W. H., 1119 Judson Ave.

Geneseo.

*Waterman, Levi, Pres., Bd. of Comm'rs, Ill. Penitentiary.

Glenwood.

Harrison, Mrs. Ursula L., Supt., Ill. Sch. of Agriculture and Manual Training for Boys.

Jacksonville.

Walker, S. T., Supt., Inst. for the Deaf and Dumb.
Watson, Walter, M.D., Supt., Ill. Central Hosp. for Insane.

Kankakee.

Clarke, Gapen, M.D., Supt., Eastern Hosp. for Insane.

Lincoln.

*Miller, Ambrose M., Supt., Ill. Asylum for Feeble-minded Chdn.

Reynolds.

Lewis, Thomas C.

Rockford.

*Keeler, Mrs. Katharine M., Member, Auxiliary Co. Bd. of Winnebago Co., 519 S. Avon St.
*Lathrop, Mrs. William.

South Evanston.

Wickins, Margaret R., Supt., Indus. Sch. for Girls.

Springfield.

Miner, Geo. F., Sec'y, Bd. of Pub. Char.
*Wines, Frederick Howard, Expert Special Agt. for Collection of Stat. of Crime, Pauperism, and Benevolence in the 11th Census.

Stockton.

*Curtiss, Geo. W., State Comm'r of Pub. Char.

Wheaton.

*Fish, Wm. B., M.D., Supt., Private Inst. for Chdn.

INDIANA.

Bluffton.

Mock, Levi.

Covington.

*Allen, James L., Sec'y, Inst. of the Blind of Ind.

Crawfordsville.

Elliott, Rev. F. M. E., Asst. State Supt., Ind. Chdn.'s Home Soc., 406 S. Grant Ave.

Ft. Wayne.

*Johnson, Alex., Supt., Indus. Sch. for Feeble-minded Youth.

Greenfield.

*Bradley, Nelson, Pres., Inst. of the Blind.

Indianapolis.

*Bicknell, Ernest, Sec'y, Bd. of State Char.
*Buchanan, Mrs. Annie, Police Matron; Asst. Supt., Police Matron Work for the State W. C. T. U.
Carroll, Miss Martha, Clerk, Bd. of State Char.
*Dixon, Mary, Supt., Boys' Club and Employment Assoc., 64 E. Court St.
*Elder, John R., Member, Bd. of State Char.
Fairbanks, Mrs. C. W., 410 Park Ave.
Gavisk, Rev. Francis H., St. Vincent de Paul Soc., 76 Georgia St., W.
Greely, Miss Laura, Clerk, Bd. of State Char.
*Grout, Chas. S., Sec'y, Char. Org. Soc.
*Haugh, Chas. E., Member Bd. of Control, Ind. Inst. for Education of Deaf and Dumb, 75 W. Market St.
Hilton, Rev. H. S., D.D., Supt., State Chdn.'s Home Soc.
*Keely, Miss Sarah F., Supt., Ref. Sch. for Girls and Woman's Prison.
Morris, Nathan, Member, Exec. Com. Char. Org. Soc., Commercial Club Bldg.
Peelle, Mrs. Mary F., Member, Bd. of State Char.
*Spink, Mary A., M.D., Member, Bd. of State Char.
*Walker, Mrs. Claire A., Mgr., Ref. Sch. for Girls and Woman's Prison, 76 W. 3d St.

Irvington.

Brown, Prof. D. C., Member, Bd. of State Char.

Plainfield.

*Charlton, Mrs. Alice E., Matron, Ind. Ref. Sch. for Boys.
*Charlton, T. J., Supt., Ind. Ref. Sch. for Boys.

Plymouth.

Reeve, Chas. H., Director, National Prison Ass'n.

Richmond.

Myrick, Reuben, State Bd. of Mgrs., Chdn.'s Home Soc., Trustee Home for Friendless Women, 408 S. 15th St.
*Nicholson, Timothy, Member, Bd. of State Char.

Terre Haute.

Davis, Sydney B., Pres., Soc. for Org. Char.; Pres., Bd. of Chdn.'s Guardians.
Pence, Mrs. Allen, Pres., Indus. Sch. Soc. for Org. Char., Bd. of Chdn.'s Guardians, etc.
*Smallwood, W. C., Gen. Sec'y, Soc. for Org. Char.

IOWA.

Burlington.

Baldwin, W. W., Pres., Char. Org. Soc.
Crapo, Miss Edith Ray, Char. Org. Soc., 513 N. 6th St.
Millard, Mrs. F. A., Cor. Sec'y for Iowa.
Neally, Edward M., Member, Exec. Com. Char. Org. Soc., 317 S. Central Ave.
*Salter, Rev. Wm., D.D., Member, Char. Org. Soc., 119 S. 8th St.
Starr, Miss M. E., Sec. Char. Org. Soc.

Davenport.

*Howard, Mrs. Nettie F., Gen. Sec'y, Assoc. Char.
McCowen, Jennie, M.D., Director, Nat'l Chdn.'s Home Soc., 316 Brady St.
Van Patten, Mrs. J. P., Sec'y, Ladies' Indus. Relief Ass'n, 404 W. 12th St.

Des Moines.

*Ankeney, Mrs. E. E., Gen. Sec'y, Assoc. Char.

Eldora.

Miles, B. J., Supt., State Indus. Sch.

Glenwood.

Powell, F. M., M.D., Supt., Iowa Inst. for Feeble-minded Chdn.

Independence.

Hill, Dr. G. H., Supt., Hosp. for Insane.

Iowa City.

*Loos, Isaac, Prof. of Political Science, Univ. of Iowa.

Marshalltown.

Ratekin, J. R., Commandant, Iowa Soldiers' Home.

Muscatine.

*Luk-ns, J. H., Ex-Supt., Soldiers' Orphs.' Home; State Delegate.

KANSAS.

Atchison.

*Faulkner, C. E., Supt., Soldiers' Orphs.' Home.

Great Bend.

Amstrong, John, Chairman, Bd. of Mgrs. State Indus. Reformatory.

North Topeka.

Howell, Rev. W. H., Supt., State Ref. Sch.

Oakley.

Willcockson, K. E., Trustee of Char. Insts. of the State.

Oberlin

Scott, Tully, Mgr., State Indus. Reformatory.

Osawatomie.

Wentworth, L. F., M.D., Supt., State Insane Hosp.

Topeka.

Clark, J. T., Vice-Pres. and Trustee, Kansas Chdn.'s Home Soc., 17 Greenwood Ave.
Minney, Dr. John E., State Chdn.'s Home Soc., 712 Kansas Ave.

KENTUCKY.

Covington.

*Bryson, Miss Mary, Director, Assoc. Char., 57 E. 6th St.

Louisville.

*Rolph, W. T., Treas., Char. Org. Soc., 4th and Main Sts.

LOUISIANA.

New Orleans.

Heymann, Michel, Jewish Orph. Home, 5342 St. Charles St.
Leucht, Rabbi J. L., Pres., United Hebrew Char.; Pres., Commis. of Prisons and Asyl. of New Orleans, 844 Carondelet St.
Locber, Dr. F., Euterpe St., Cor. Coliseum St.
Stauffer, Walter R., 511 Canal St.

MAINE.

Bangor.

*Chase, Mrs. Hooper, Treas., Assoc. Char., 112 Essex St.

Farmington.

Beedy, Mrs. Helen Coffin, State Delegate.

Fryeburg.

Merrill, Mrs. Margaret T. W.

Portland.

Leavitt, Mrs. H. C., State Supt., Dept. of Securing Homes for Homeless Children; State Delegate, 772 Congress St.
Stevens, Mrs. L. M. N., Trustee, Indus. Sch. for Girls.
*Wentworth, Edwin P., Asst. Supt., State Ref. Sch.

Stroudwater.

Hawes, Andrew.

MARYLAND.

Baltimore.

*Brackett, Jeffrey R., Char. Org. Soc., 10 W. Madison St.
*Brown, Miss Mary Wilcox, Char. Org. Soc., 110 W. North Ave.
Gilman, D. C., Pres. Johns Hopkins Univ.
Glenn, John, Chairman, Exec. Com. Char. Org. Soc., 12 St. Paul St.
*Glenn, John M., Char. Org. Soc., State Delegate, 12 St. Paul St.
Glenn, William L., Char. Org. Soc., 1103 N. Eutaw St.
*Gould, E. R. L., Prof. of Statistics (Elect), Univ. of Chicago, Johns Hopkins Univ.
*King, Miss Elizabeth T., State Delegate, Baltimore Orph. Asyl., 840 Park Ave.
Kirkwood, Robt. Jabez, Supt. House of Refuge.

Baltimore, *Continued*—

Lawford, J. M., 718 N. Howard St.
Levering, Eugene, 1208 Eutaw Pl.
Levering, Joshua, Pres., House of Refuge, 102 Commerce St.
*McLane, Miss Kate M., Vice-Pres., Char. Org. Soc., 1101 N. Charles St.
New Mercantile Library, 305 N. Charles St.
Penington, D. F., Pres., Masonic Lodge of Relief, 221 N. Liberty St.
*Richmond, Miss Mary E., Gen. Sec'y, Char. Org. Soc., 301 N. Charles St.
*Rogers, Miss Julia R., Treas. and Sec'y, Evening Dispensary for Working Women and Girls, 821 N. Charles St.
Shippen, Charles C., Mgr., Char. Org. Soc., 603 N. Charles St.
Steiner, Bernard C., Librarian, Enoch Pratt Free Library.
White, Julian LeRoy, 12 St. Paul St.
Wilson, Mrs. J. Appleton, Pres., Baltimore Orph. Asyl.; Vice-Pres., Home for Mothers and Infants, 1013 St. Paul St.

Catonsville.

Compton, Barnes, Treas., Md. Hosp. for the Insane.
Johnson, Wilmot, Pres., Md. Hosp. for the Insane.
Rohe, Geo. H., M.D., Supt., Md. Hosp. for the Insane.
*Wade, Dr. J. Percy, Asst. Physician, Md. Hosp. for the Insane; State Delegate.

Ellicott City.

*Fort, Samuel J., M.D., Font Hill Private Inst. for Feeble-minded and Epileptic.

MASSACHUSETTS.

Amherst.

*Hitchcock, Edward, M.D., Member, State Bd. of Lun. and Char.
Morse, Anson Daniel, Prof. of History, Amherst College.

Boston.

Allen, Rev. Frederick B., Supt., Episcopal City Mission, 132 Marlboro St.
*Atwood, Mrs. Lucy P., Asst. Gen. Agt., Mass. Soc. for Prevention of Cruelty to Chdn., 15 Pemberton Sq.
*Barrows, Mrs. Isabel C., Editor of Proceedings.
*Birtwell, Chas. W., Gen. Sec'y, Chdn.'s Aid Soc., 43 Charity Bldg.
*Bradley, Chas. H., Supt., Boston Farm Sch., Box 1486.
Byrne, Rev. Wm. V. G., Spiritual Director, St. Vincent de Paul Soc., 6 Allen St.
Capen, Samuel B., Pres., Boston Municipal League, 350 Washington St.
*Cornwall, Geo. E., Agt., Comm'rs of Prison and Mass. Soc. for Aiding Discharged Convicts, State House.
Crafts, Miss Mary E., Director, Assoc. Char., 304 Berkeley St.
Donnelly, Chas. F., Member, State Bd. of Lun. and Char.
*Dyer, Daniel P., Supervisor, Boston Farm Sch., P.O. Box 1486.
*Evans, Mrs. Glendower, Trustee, State Prim. Ref. Sch., 12 Otis Pl.
Fay, Miss Sarah B., New England Home for Little Wanderers, 88 Mt. Vernon St.
Field, Parker B., Supt., Barnard Memorial, 10 Warrenton St.
Folsom, Mrs. Chas. F., Pres., Ward 6 Conf. Assoc. Char., 15 Marlboro St.
Fowler, Wm. P., Chairman, Overseers of the Poor; Pres., Indus. Aid Soc., etc., 26 State St.
*Frye, Miss S. E., Agt. for Discharged Female Prisoners, State House.
Greene, Mrs. J. S. Copley, Director, Assoc. Char., 354 Marlboro St.
*Hale, Edward E., *Lend a Hand Magazine*, 3 Hamilton Pl.
Hale, Geo. S., Pres., Chdn.'s Aid Soc., 10 Tremont St.
*Hersey, Miss Maria F., North Bennet Indus. Sch.; Shaw Asyl. for Mariners' Chdn., 28th St. and James Ave.
*Holmes, David H., Asst. Supt., Boston Asyl. and Farm Sch. for Indigent Boys, Thompson's Island, P.O. Box 1486.
Humphreys, Richard C., Overseer of the Poor; Pres., Dorchester Employment and Relief Soc., etc., 141 Franklin St.
Jackson, Miss Anna P., Director, Chdn.'s Aid Soc. and Home for Aged Colored Women, 383 Beacon St.
Johnson, Miss Elise S., Sec'y, Country Week, 48 Boylston St.
*Kennedy, John J., Vice-Pres., Central Council, St. Vincent de Paul Soc. of Boston, 1500 Tremont St.
*Kingsley, Sherman C., Chdn.'s Aid Soc., Boston Home, 43 Hawkins St.
Lawrence, Sam'l C., Chdn.'s Aid Soc., 43 Char. Bldg.
Le Brun, Mrs. Jean M., Assoc. Char., Women's Educ. Indus. Union, etc, 10 Marlboro St., Back Bay P.O.
*Lincoln, Mrs. Alice N., Director, "Boston Co-operative Bldg. Co."; Member, "Better Dwellings Soc.," 269 Beacon St.
*Lincoln, Rowland C., Director, Boston Co-operative Bldg. Co., 269 Beacon St.
Lyman, Arthur T., P.O. Box 1717.
Mason, Miss Ida M., Assoc. Char., 1 Walnut st.
Morse, Miss Frances R., Director, Chdn.'s Aid Soc.; Member, Assoc. Char., 12 Marlboro St.
*Munro, Miss Martha H., 542 Massachusetts Ave.
Overseers of the Poor, Char. Bldg.
*Paine, Robert Treat, Pres., Assoc. Char., 6 Joy St.
*Paine, Mrs. Robert Treat, Director, Soc. for Prevention of Cruelty to Animals, 6 Joy St.
Parsons, Miss Emma A., Visitor, Assoc. Char., 903 Boylston St.
Pettigrove, Fred G., Gen'l Supt. of Prisons of Mass., State House.
Putnam, Chas. P., M.D., Assoc. Char., 63 Marlboro St., Back Bay.
*Putnam, Miss Elizabeth C., Trustee, Mass. State Prim. Ref. Sch., 63 Marlboro St., Back Bay.
*Ring, Thomas F., Pres. of the Particular Council, St. Vincent de Paul Soc., 145 Franklin St.
*Rogers, Miss Annette P., Overseer of the Po r, 5 Joy St.
*Rowe, G. H. M., M.D., Medical Supt., Boston City Hosp.
*Seavey, Mrs. Mary L., Vice-Pres., Wards 17 and 18, Conf. Assoc. Char., 542 Mass. Ave.
*Skinner, Mrs. Louise A., Supt., Temporary Home for Working Women, 453 Shawmut Ave.
Smith, Miss Frances A., Agt. of Ward 7, Assoc. Char., 51 Char. Bldg.
Spalding, Warren F., Sec'y, Mass. Prison Ass'n, 15 Pemberton Sq.
*Staigg, Mrs. R. M., Sec'y, Indus. Sch. for Girls; Director, Chdn.'s Aid Soc., etc., 18 Louisburg Sq.
*Stone, Henry, Supt., Outdoor Poor, State Bd. of Lun. and Char., State House.

Boston, *Continued*—

Tobey, Rev. Rufus B., Supt. Reform, Relief, Rescue, and Charitable Work, Berkeley Temple, Sta. A.
Tuttle, Mrs. E. L., Chdn.'s Aid Soc., 43 Char. Bldg.
Wells, Mrs. Kate Gannett, Member, State Bd. of Education, 45 Commonwealth Ave.
*Wells, Jno. D., Clerk, State Bd. of Lun. and Char., State Delegate, State House.
White, Edward T., Dept. of Outdoor Poor, State House
*White, Miss M. A., Sloyd Training Sch.
*Whitman, Mrs. Bernard, Sec'y, Lend a Hand Clubs; Assoc. Editor, *Lend a Hand Magazine*, 3 Hamilton Pl.
Wigglesworth, Geo., Assoc. Char., 89 State St.
Woodbury, Chas. E., M.D., Insp. of Insts., State Bd. of Lun. and Char., State House.
Wright, Miss Mary A., Visitor, Assoc. Char., 82 Myrtle St.
Wrightington, Stephen C., Supt., Indoor Poor, State Bd. of Lun. and Char., State House.

Brockton.

Merritt, Mrs. C. C., Director, Assoc. Char.
Weston, Lon, Pres., Assoc. Char.

Brookfield.

*Johnson, Geo. W., Chairman, State Bd. of Lun. and Char.

Brookline.

Addicks, Elizabeth T.
Arnold, Geo. F., 25 Waverly St.
*Chapin, Miss Mabel H., Upland Road.
*Codman, Mrs. Henrietta G., Member, State Bd. of Lun. and Char.
Cummings, H. Alma, 31 Cypress St.
*Denny, Miss Emily G., Sec'y, Mass. Ass'n of Working Girls, 61 Upland Road.
*Edgerly, Martha W., Overseer of the Poor, Irving St.
Lee, Joseph, Director, Assoc. Char. of Boston.
Proctor, Ellen O., Visitor, Assoc. Char. of Boston, 4 Richter Ter.
Swan, Wm. W., Trustee and Sec'y, Mass. Sch. for Feeble-minded, 27 Irving St.

Cambridge.

Child, Francis S., Gen. Sec'y, Assoc. Char.
*Hart, Prof. Albert Bushnell, Harvard Univ., 15 Appian Way.
*Hart, Mrs. Albert Bushnell, 15 Appian Way.
Hildreth, Jno. L., M.D., Member, State Bd of Lun. and Char.
Lawrence, Wm.
*Peabody, Francis G., Prof., Harvard Univ., 13 Kirkland St.
*Storer, Mrs. Sarah S., Trustee, Avon Home.
Thorp, J. G., 115 Brattle St.

Canton.

Jenks, Henry F.
*Rogers, Miss Mary C., Auxiliary Visitor, State Bd. of Lun. and Char.

Charlestown.

Doane, Thomas, Trustee, Doane College, Crete, Neb.; Director, Assoc. Char., Boston; Pres., Charlestown Conf. Assoc. Char., etc., 8 Pearl St.

Chestnut Hill.

Sawyer, Lucy N., Vice-Pres., Newton Social Science Club, Chestnut Hill.

Concord.

*Sanborn, F. B., Trustee, Clarke Inst. for the Deaf; Member of Corporation, Mass. Sch. for the Blind and Sch. for Feeble-minded at Waltham.

Dedham.

Whitney, Mrs. E. D., Supt., Temporary Asyl. for Discharged Female Prisoners, Box 135.

Dorchester.

Bradford, Geo. B., Treas., Employment and Relief Soc., 38 Sumner St.
King, Miss S. F., Member, Exec. Com., Dorchester Indus. Sch., etc. Everett St.
*Pratt, Laban, State Bd. of Lun. and Char.

Dudley.

Collins, Mrs. Mary W.

Fall River.

Anthony, Mrs. D. M., 116 N. Main St.
Borden, Thomas J., Assoc. Char., 112 N. Main St.
Lincoln, Leontine, Member, State Bd. of Lun. and Char.
*Slade, Mrs. David F., Friendly Visitor, Assoc. Char., 100 Rock St.
Wetherbee, Alice E., Agt., Assoc. Char., 60 N. Main St.

Fitchburg.

Crocker, M. C., Vice-Pres., Benev. Union.

Lancaster.

*Brackett, Mrs. L. L., Supt., State Indus. Sch.

Lawrence.

*Carter, Rev. Clark, Sec'y, City Mission, P.O. Box 96.
Hinchcliffe, W. J., 98 Tremont St.
Somerville, C. E. M., Supt., Lawrence Gen. Hosp., 133 Methuen St.
Wolcott, Rev. William E., 246 Haverhill St.

Lowell.

Candee, Mrs. H. M., Box 42.
Page, D. L., M.D.
*Richardson, Mrs. Anne B., Member, State Bd. of Lun. and Char.

Lynn.

Pullman, Rev. James M., D.D., Pres., Assoc. Char., 25 Cherry St.
*Taylor, Alice S., Register, Assoc. Char., 5 Lee Hall.

Medfield.

Allen, Joseph A., Family Indus. Sch.

Melrose.

Livermore, Mary A.

New Bedford.

*Healey, Martin C., Cottage St., cor. Durfee.
Hersey, Rev. Chas. F., City Missionary, 184 Washington St.
Prescott, Oliver, Jr., Pres., Union for Good Works.

Newton.

Ballister, Edith, 610 Centre St.
*Lamb, Rev. W. A., Pres., Assoc. Char.
Tripp, Willard D., 23 Boyd St.

Newtonville.

*Martin, Mrs. Mary R., Sec'y, Assoc. Char
Worcester, Chas. P., Trustee, State Prim. & Ref. Schs.

North Adams.

Curran, Dr. Chas. J., Member, State Bd. of Lun. and Char.

Northampton.

*Powers, Harry H., Prof. of Econ. and Sociology, Smith College, 70 Paradise Road.

Palmer.

*Wheeler, Walter A., Supt., State Prim. Sch.

Pittsfield.

Dawes, Miss Anna L., Home Work Ass'n.
*Viney, Geo. H. C., Supt., Union for Home Work, 119 Fenn St.

Roxbury.

Quinn, Mrs. Wm. J., Assoc. Char., Ward 6, 2 Akron St.

Somerville.

*Conant, Miss Bertha A., Ward 4 Sec'y, Assoc. Char., 145 Highland Ave.
*Keyes, Miss Emma S., Agt., Assoc. Char., 154 Central St.
*Mason, Miss Ellen, Matron, Day Nursery, 144 Washington St.
*Noyes, Rev. Chas. L., Pres., Assoc. Char., 29 Albion St.
Powers, Rev. L. M., Sec'y, Assoc. Char., 81 Flint St.

South Framingham.

Johnson, Mrs. Ellen C., Supt., Reformatory Prison for Women.

Springfield.

City Library Ass'n.
*Gilman, Bradley, Trustee, Union Relief Ass'n, 207 State St.
*Hall, Mrs. Chas., Mgr., Indus. House Char.; Mgr., Home for Friendless Women and Chdn., 45 Elliott St.
*Kirkham, Mrs. J. Stuart, Treas., Chdn.'s Aid Ass'n.
Law, Miss Jane E., Mgr., Union Relief Ass'n; Indus. House Char., 104 Spring St.
*Lewis, Jas. H., Agt., Overseers of the Poor, City Hall Ct.
Marsh, Arthur E., Pres., Particular Council, St. Vincent de Paul Soc., P.O. Box 795.
Reed, David Allan, Trustee, Mt. Vernon Boys' Sch., Hartford Theol. Seminary, etc., 734 State St.
*Whiting, Mrs. Eliza R., Sec'y, Union Relief Ass'n, 284 Pine St.

Stockbridge.

Lawrence, Rev. Arthur.
*Farwell, Rev. Parris T., Friendly Aid Soc.

Walpole.

*Morse, Aaron R., Master, Norfolk, Bristol, and Plymouth Union Truant Soc.

Waltham.

Fernald, Walter S., M.D., Supt., Mass. School for Feeble-Minded.

Wellesley.

Coman, Katharine, Prof. of History and Econ., Wellesley College.

Westboro.

*Chapin, T. F., Supt., Lyman Sch. for Boys,
Lounsberry, J. D., Master, Willow Cottage, Lyman Sch. for Boys.

West Newton.

Allen, Nathaniel T., Prin., Eng. and Classical Sch.; Pres., Newton Pomroy Home for Orphan and Destitute Girls.

Williamstown.

Bascom, John, Prof. of Polit. Science, Williams College.

Winchester.

Carter, Geo. H., Sec'y, Overseers of Poor, 81 Main St.
*Mason, Mrs. Lucinda E., Pres., Winchester Union; Overseer of Poor, 18 Mt. Pleasant St.
*Pierce, Mrs. Lynthia J., Overseer of Poor; Winchester Union, 11 Mt. Pleasant St.

Worcester.

Moore, Miss Nellie A., Custodian, Good Samaritan Soc., 90 Portland St.
Nichols, Dr. Chas. L., Director, Assoc. Char., 38 Cedar St.
Warren, E. H.
*Witherspoon, Miss M. F., Gen. Sec'y, Assoc. Char., 35 Pearl St.

MICHIGAN.

Adrian.

*Robbins, Louise Barnum, Cor. Sec'y, Nat'l Council of Women, U.S.A.; Member, Nat'l Exec. Bd., Woman's Relief Corps, 25 Broad St.
*Sickels, Mrs. Lucy M., Supt., State Indus. Home for Girls.

Battle Creek.

Kellogg, J. H., M.D., Pres., S. D. A. Medical Missionary and Benev. Ass'n, 202 Manchester St.

Berrien Centre.

*Mars, Thos., Chairman, State Pub. Sch. at Coldwater.

Calumet.

Niles, Charles W., M.D.

Cassopolis.

*Shepard, James M., Member, State Bd. of Cor. and Char.

Coldwater.

*Griffin, S. C., State Agt., State Pub. Sch.; State Delegate.
Woodruff, A. N., Supt., State Pub. Sch.

Detroit.

Bagley, Mrs. John J., Washington Ave.
*Baldwin, Mrs. Stephen, Pres., Day Nursery and Kindergarten, 3 Madison Ave.
Barbour, Levi L., Member, Bd. of Regents, Univ. of Mich., 30 Buhl Block.
*Bowling, Mrs. E. C., Vice-Pres., Home of Indus.; Pres., Newsboys' Ass'n, 79 Hancock St.

Detroit, *Continued*—

*D'Arcambal, Mrs. Agnes L., Founder, Home of Indus. for Discharg'd Prison'rs; State Delegate, 259 Willis Ave.
Hudson, J. L.
Mulliken, Mrs. J. B., Member of Bd., Home of Indus.
*Post, James A., M.D., Sec'y, Ass'n of Char.
*Reid, Maud A., Supt., Kindergartens; Prin., Normal Sch., Indus. Sch. Ass'n and Kindergarten, 21 Bagley Ave.
Wasey, Geo. E.

Dowagiac.

*Lee, Mrs. Fred E., Chdn.'s Home at St. Joseph; State Delegate.

Eloise.

*Bennett, E. O., M.D., Medical Supt., Wayne Co. Insane Asyl.

Flushing.

*Sayre, Ira T., Pres., Bd. of Trustees, Indus. Sch. for Boys.

Grand Rapids.

*Cosper, Walter L., Asst. Sec'y, Char. Org. Soc., 139 N. Division St.
*Crozier, Alfred O., Vice-Pres., Char. Org. Soc., 539 Cherry St.
Gillespie, Rt. Rev. Geo. D., D.D., LL.D., Chairman, State Bd. of Cor. and Char.
*Hollister, Harvey J., Pres., Char. Org. Soc., Old Nat'l Bank.
*Hollister, Mrs. Martha C., Char. Org. Soc.; Butterworth Hosp. Training Sch., 471 E. Fulton St.
Jackson, John L., Pres., Humane Soc., 21 Campbell Pl.

Jackson.

*Chamberlin, Wm., Warden, Mich. State Prison.

Kalamazoo.

Dewing, Mrs. J. A., Cor. Sec'y, Chdn.'s Home Soc., 206 Lovell St.

Lansing.

Rich, Gov. Jno. T., *ex-officio* Member, State Bd. of Cor. and Char.
*Slattery, Rev. T. F., Chaplain, Catholic Boys Indus. Sch. for Boys, 811 Chestnut St., N.
*St. John, J. E., Supt., Indus. Sch. for Boys.
St. John, Mrs. J. E., Indus. Sch. for Boys.
*Storrs, L. C., Sec'y, State Bd. of Cor. and Char.
Wardwell, Miss Gertrude, Clerk, State Bd. of Cor. and Char.

Monroe.

*O'Rorke, Rev. Frank, in Charge of Orphs., Diocese of Detroit; State Delegate.

Newberry.

Bell, Sam'l, M.D., Supt., Northern Mich. Asyl.

Pontiac.

Christian, E. A., M.D., Supt., Eastern Mich. Asyl.
Neff, Irwin H., M.D.

Saginaw (E. S.).

Batchelor, Henry A., Pres., Assoc. Char., 601 Eddy Bldg.
Forrest, Herbert A., Member, State Bd. of Cor. and Char.
Peter, Mrs. James B, Mgr., Home for the Friendless and Indus. Sch., 536 Millard St.

Saginaw (W. S.).

*Bliss, Mrs. Allaseba M., Pres., Bd. of Guardians, State Indus. Home for Girls, 1702 N. Mich. Ave.

MINNESOTA.

Blue Earth City.

Temple, F. W., Mgr., State Prison.
Wakefield, J. B., Member, State Bd. of Cor. and Char.; Pres., State Conf. of Char. and Cor.

Duluth.

Costello, R. A., Mgr., State Training Sch.
Hall, M. O., Mgr., State Prison.
McGolrick, Rt. Rev. James, Assoc. Char.; St. Vincent de Paul Soc., etc.
Maginnis, C. P., Member, State Bd. of Cor. and Char.
Miller, N. J., Agt., State Fire Relief Com., 201 E. 2d St.
Miller, J. W., Sec'y, Assoc. Char.

Empire.

Redican, Thomas, Supt., Dakota Co. Poorhouse.

Eyota.

Dunn, Edwin, Mgr., State Prison.

Faribault.

Dobbyn, James, D.D., Rector, Shattuck Sch.
Leavens, E. N., Sec'y, Assoc. Char.
Mott, R. A, Sec'y, Minn. Inst. for Defectives.
*Rogers, A. C., M.D., Supt., State Sch. for Feeble-minded Chdn.
Whipple, Rt. Rev. H. B., Bishop of Minn.

Hastings.

Norrish, J. F., Mgr., State Prison.

Mankato.

McCleary, J. T., Member of Congress.
Roberts, Robert, Co. Comm'r.

Minneapolis.

Bell, David C., ex-Member, State Bd. of Cor. and Char.
Brackett, Geo. A., ex-Member, State Bd. of Cor. and Char.
Clough, David M., Governor; Pres., State Bd. of Cor. and Char.
*Fay, E. A., Sec'y, Assoc. Char.
Folwell, W. W., Prof., State Univ.; Member, State Bd. of Cor. and Char.
Holt, George D., Agt., State Fire Relief Com.
Kelly, Anthony, Director, Minn. Inst. for Defectives.
McCurdy, Mrs. A. C., Cor. Sec'y, State W. C. T. U., 210 E. Grant st.
Northrop, Cyrus, LL.D., Pres., State Univ.
Owre, Lars, Clerk, City Bd. of Char. and Cor.
Pillsbury, Chas. A., Pres., State Fire Relief Com.
Rhoades, Miss Chloe A., Supt., Bethany Home, 3719 Bryant Ave.
Sanford, Prof. Maria L., State Univ.
Thayer, Samuel R., State Conf. of Char. and Cor.
Walker, Mrs. T. B., Pres., North-western Hosp.; Sec., Bethany Home, 808 Hennepin Ave.

Northfield.

Huntington, Prof. Geo., Carleton College.

Owatonna.

Lewis, Frank, Agt., State Pub. Sch.
*Merrill, G. A., Supt., State Pub. Sch.
*Merrill, Mrs. G. A., Matron, State Pub. Sch.

Red Wing.

* Brown, J. W., Supt., State Training Sch.
* Brown, Mrs. J. W., Matron, State Training Sch.
Johnston, Miss Grace, Agt., State Training Sch.

St. Cloud.

Lee, Wm. E., Supt., State Reformatory.

St. Paul.

Akers, Miss Julia, Matron, Co. Jail.
Chapel, Chas. E., Sheriff of Ramsey Co.
Clark, Kenneth, Treas., State Fire Relief Commission, 403 Portland Ave.
Cowie, G. G., Clerk, State Bd. of Cor. and Char., State Capitol.
Cramsie, Miss Mary J., Newsboys' Home Ass'n, 739 St. Peter St.
Durment, E. S., Member, State Bd. of Cor. and Char., N.Y. Life Bldg.
Egbert, Rev. John Paul, D.D., Pastor, House of Hope Church.
Fitzgerald, John, Supt., City Workhouse.
Gmeiner, Rev. John, Chaplain, House of the Good Shepherd.
* Hart, H. H., Sec'y, State Bd. of Cor. and Char.; Pres., Assoc. Char.
* Hart, Mrs. H. H., 669 Jackson St.
Haupt, Rev. A. J. D., Soc. for Relief of the Poor, 747 Portland Ave.
Hutchins, M. L., Sec'y, Soc. for Relief of the Poor.
* Jackson, James F., Sec'y, Assoc. Char., 904 N.Y. Life Bldg.
Kerr, Charles D., Judge of District Court, 184 Summit Ave
Knox, Miss Zillah, Clerk, State Bd. of Cor. and Char., State Capitol.
Lawler, Rev. J. J., St. Vincent de Paul Soc., Victoria St., cor. Summit Ave.
Ludden, John D., 641 Wabasha St.
Millard, Rev. Watson B., Pastor, Plymouth Church, 491 Stryker Ave.
Noyes, Daniel R., Treas., Soc. for Relief of the Poor, Sibley St., cor. 5th.
Pierce, Ambrose, Pres., St. Vincent's Conf., Soc. of St. Vincent de Paul, 153 University Ave., W.
* Savage, Rev. E. P., Supt., Minn. Chdn.'s Home Soc.
Smith, Mrs. C. D., Bethel Ass'n.
* Smith, Rev. Samuel G., D.D., Lecturer on Sociology, Univ. of Minn., 125 College Ave.
Wilbrich, Gebhard, Probate Judge of Ramsey Co., 584 Grand Ave.
Young, Mrs. Geo. B., Pres., Protestant Orph. Asyl., 324 Summit Ave.

St. Peter.

Amundson, Christopher, Vice-Pres., State Bd. of Cor. and Char.
Tomlinson, H. A., M.D., Supt., St. Peter State Hosp.

Stillwater.

O'Brien, E. A., Clerk, State Prison.
O'Brien, James, Mgr., State Prison.
Wolfer, Henry, Warden, State Prison.

Winona.

Norton, Matthew G., Member, Fire Relief Com.

Worthington.

Palm, H. M., Co. Comm'r.

MISSISSIPPI.

Meridian,

Buchanan, J. M., M.D., Supt, E. Miss. Insane Asyl.

MISSOURI.

Chillicothe.

Gilbert, Miss Emma M., Supt., State Indus. Home for Girls.
McIlwrath, Wm.
Slack, Mrs. J. R., Mgr., State Indus. Home for Girls.

Kansas City.

Ellison, David, Chdn.'s Home Soc. for Mo., 1224 Washington St.
Howes, Mrs. I. C., Provident Ass'n, 3607 Oak St.
Meyer, Aug. R., 2806 Independence Ave.

St. Louis.

Bernheimer, Marcus, Director, United Hebrew Relief Ass'n, 208 N. 4th St.
* Finney, Rev. Thos. M., D.D., Gen. Mgr., Provident Ass'n, 4028 Morgan St.
Perry, Miss Mary E., State Cor. Sec'y, Nat'l Conf., 12 Van de Venter Pl.
Ten Broek, G. H., Sec'y and Treas., Bethel Ass'n; Sec'y, Protestant Hosp. Ass'n, 304 N. 8th St.
Tennison, J. M., State Supt., Chdn.'s Home Soc. of Mo., 1623 Olive St.

Trenton.

DeBolt, Mrs. L. N., Mgr., State Indus. Home for Girls.
Harper, Mrs. Henrietta J., Member, Local Bd., Chdn.'s Home Finding Ass'n.

MONTANA.

Twin Bridges.

Comfort, Geo., Supt., State Orphs.' Home.

NEBRASKA.

Lincoln.

Harwood, N. S., 1618 L St.
Hebard, J. P., Gen. Sec'y, Char. Org. Soc., 134 S. 12th St.
Hoel, Mrs. L. Beach, Supt., Home for the Friendless.
* Ludden, Rev. Luther P., Sec'y, State Relief Com.; State Delegate.
* McCormick, Mrs. Annie, Agt., Char. Org. Soc.; State Delegate.

Milford.

Carscadden, Mrs. Clara S., Supt., Neb. Indus. Home.

Omaha.

Bemis, George P., Mayor; Member, Exec. Com., Assoc. Char.; Director, "Open Poor," City Hall.
Carpenter, Isaac W.
* Clark, A. W., Supt., Boys' and Girls' Aid Soc. of Omaha.
Laughland, John, Sec'y, Assoc. Char., 807 Howard St.

Tekamah.

Hamblin, C. H.

NEW HAMPSHIRE.

Alton.

Gilman, Mrs. Oliver J., Member, State Bd. of Char.

Concord.

Carpenter, Mrs. A. P., Sec'y, State Bd. of Char.
Mitchell, John M., Chairman, State Bd. of Char.
Streeter, Mrs. Lilian C., Sec'y, New Eng. Conf. of Char. and Cor.; Chairman, Philanthropy Com., Women's Club, 234 N. Main St.
White, Mrs Armenia S.

Dover.

Wendell, Miss C. R , Pres., Trustees, W. C. T. U. Mercy Home at Manchester.

Franklin.

Blodgett, Mrs. Isaac N., Trustee, N. H. Orphs.' Home.

Manchester.

Varick, Mrs. J. B., Member, State Bd. of Char.

Marlboro.

Davis, Geo. G., Member, State Bd. of Char.

NEW JERSEY.

Bayonne.

Fox, Hugh Francis, Pres., Char. Org. Soc., 22 Schuyler Ct.

Camden.

Reeve, Richard H., Sec'y and Treas., Cooper Hosp., 700 Cooper St.

Cream Ridge.

Rue, Nathaniel S., Pres., Trustees, State Ref. Sch.

Dover.

Dunham, Horace L., Trustee, State Ref. Sch.
Richards, Geo.

East Orange.

Colie, Edward M., Vice-Pres., Bureau of Assoc. Char., 109 Prospect St.
Farrand, Wilson.

Elizabeth.

* McAlister, Rev. F. M., Rector, Irving Acad.
* Williamson, Mrs. Emily E., Sec'y, State Char. Aid Ass'n; Mgr., State Inst. for Feeble-minded; State Delegate.

Flemington.

Mott, Geo. S., Mgr., State Char. Aid Ass'n.

Hoboken.

Brush, Chas. B., 1 Newark St.
Cook, Miss Edith W., Sec'y, Hudson Co. Branch, State Char. Aid Ass'n, 76 Hudson St.

Jamesburg.

* Otterson, Ira, Supt., State Ref. Sch.

Jersey City.

Gopsill, Thos. Milburn, Sec'y, Reformatory Com.; Treas., State Char. Aid Ass'n, etc.; State Delegate, 1 Exchange Pl.
* Pangborn, Zebina K., State Char. Aid Ass'n, 37 Montgomery St.
* Pangborn, Mrs. Z. K., Member, State Char. Aid Ass'n, 63 Arlington Ave.

Morris Plains.

Egan, A. M.
Evans, B. D., M.D., Supt., N.J. State Hosp.

Morristown.

Buckley, Rev. J. M., D.D., Ed., *Christian Advocate;* Mgr., N.J. State Hosps. for Insane, 46 Hill St.
Lewis, Charlton T., Pres., State Char. Aid Ass'n of N.J.; Pres., Prison Ass'n of N.Y.
Smith, Mrs. Fayette.

Newark.

Bigelow, Moses, Treas., Trustees, State Ref. Sch.
Dennis, Dr. L., Pres., Bureau of Assoc. Char., 30 Central Ave.
Mathews, B. C., Instructor in Classics, City High Sch., 36 Kearney St.
Meeker, S. J., Bureau of Assoc. Char., 95 Clay St.
Smith, Charles B., Sec'y, Bureau of Assoc. Char., 863 Broad St.
* Smith, J. Huyler, Supt., Bureau of Assoc. Char.

New Brunswick.

Parsons, James M., Sec'y, Trustees, State Ref. Sch.

New Egypt.

Gaskell, Frank S., Trustee, State Ref. Sch.

Orange.

* Ropes, Mrs. D. M., Director, Bureau of Assoc. Char.
* McDougall, Arthur Wm., Gen. Sec'y, Bureau of Assoc. Char.

Plainfield.

Gilbert, Alexander, 318 W. 8th St.
Newhall, Henry B., Vice-Pres., Citizens' Org. Aid Ass'n, 144 East 7th St.
Tiffany, Mrs. Dexter, Member, State Char. Aid Ass'n; Member of Council, Citizens' Org. Aid Ass'n, 125 Crescent Ave.
Tyler, Mason W., Pres., Citizens' Org. Aid Ass'n, 525 W. 7th St.

Princeton.

Daniels, W. M., Prof. of Econ., College of N.J.

Somerville.

Bergen, James J., Member, N.J. State Bd.

Trenton.

Foster, Daniel Requa, Mgr., State Char. Aid Soc., 328 Greenwood Ave.
* Maddock, Rev. Geo. C., Pres., Bd. of Trustees, N.J. State Indus. Sch. for Girls; Chaplain, N.J. State Prison, 109 E. Hanover St.
Mitchell, Henry, M.D., Sec'y, State Bd. of Health.
Satterthwaite, Laura H., M.D., Sec'y, Mercer Co. Branch, State Char. Aid Ass'n; Visiting Physician to N.J. State Ref. Sch. for Girls, etc., 45 W. State St.
* Warman, David, M.D., Pres., Mercer Co. Branch, State Char. Aid Soc., 259 Chestnut Ave.

Vineland.

Bidwell, E. H., M.D., Trustee, State Ref. Sch.
* Dunlap, Mary J., M.D., Supt., State Inst. for Feeble-minded Girls and Women; State Delegate.
Garrison, S. Olin, Prin., Training Sch. for Feeble-minded Chdn.

NEW YORK.

Albany.

Fanning, James O., Asst. Sec'y, State Bd. of Char.
Fuller, Helen T., Supt., Orph. Asyl., Western Ave. and Robin St.

Albany, *Continued*—

Hancock, Theo. E., Attorney-Gen.; Member, State Bd. of Char., *ex officio*.
Hoag, Miss Julia, Clerk, State Bd. of Char.
*Hoyt, Chas. S., M.D., Sec'y, State Bd. of Char.
McGarr, T. E., Sec'y, State Commis. in Lunacy, 37 Lake Ave.
Miller, Geo. Douglas, Treas., Char. Org. Soc., 125 State St.
*Moir, John, Gen. Sec'y, Char. Org. Soc., 8 Douws Bldg.
Palmer, Jno., Sec'y of State; Member, State Bd. of Char., *ex officio*.
Roberts, James A., Controller; Member, State Bd. of Char., *ex officio*.
Saxton, Chas. T., Lieut. Gov.; Member, State Bd. of Char., *ex officio*.
Van Antwerp, Jno. H., Vice-Pres., State Bd. of Char.

Amenia.

Swift, Susie F., Officer in Charge, Waif and Stray Dept., Salvation Army. (London address, 101 Queen Victoria St., London, E.C.)

Bath.

Davenport, Mrs. John, State Char. Aid Ass'n.
*McPherson, Mrs. Robt., Supt., Davenport Home for Orph. Girls.

Brooklyn.

Bergen, Tunis G., Member, State Bd. of Char., 127 Pierrepont St.
*Dana, Rev. Malcolm, McG., D.D., formerly Vice-Pres., Minn. State Bd. of Char. and Cor., 173 Macon St.
*Day, Albert A., Cor. Sec'y and Gen. Agt., Ass'n for Improv. the Condition of the Poor, 104 Livingston St.
De Silver, Carll H., Trustee, Brooklyn Inst. of Arts and Sciences, 43 Pierrepont St.
Eliot, Rev. Samuel A., Vice-Pres., Bureau of Char., 98 Pierrepont St.
Litchfield, Edw. H., Member, State Bd. of Char., 2 Montague Terrace.
*Safford, George B., Gen. Sec'y, Bureau of Char., 69 Schermerhorn St.
*Tenney, Mrs. S. E., Northern District Sec'y, Bureau of Char., 109 South 5th St.
White, Alfred T., Bureau of Char., 40 Remsen St.

Buffalo.

*Almy, Fred'k, Sec'y and Treas., Char. Org. Soc., Fitch Inst.
Griffin, P. H., German Ins. Bldg.
Letchworth, Wm. P., Member, State Bd. of Char.
*Moore, Miss Marion I., Asst. Sec'y, Char. Org. Soc., 165 Swan St.
Munro, Josiah G., Char. Org. Soc., 513 Delaware Ave.
Smith, T. Guilford, Pres., Char. Org. Soc.
Wilcox, Ansley, Trustee and Chairman, Exec. Com. Char. Org. Soc.
Williams, Martha T., Treas., Chdn.'s Hosp., 1226 Main St.

Canaan Four Corners.

Dooly, John, Supt., Burnham Indus. Farm.
*Dooly, Miss Mira M., Teacher, Burnham Indus. Farm, Box 20.

Canandaigua.

Richardson, Chas. A., Sec'y, Trustees, Ontario Orph. Asyl.

Chittenango.

Walrath, Peter, Member, State Bd. of Char.

Clyde.

*Baker, Geo. O., Sec'y, Bd. of Trustees, N.Y. State Custodial Asyl. for Feeble-minded Women.

Corona, L.I.

*Gay, Miss Marianna, Cambridge St.

Elmira.

Brockway, Z. R., Supt., State Reformatory.

Fishkill-on-Hudson.

Allison, H. E., M.D., Supt., Matteawan State Hosp. (for Insane Convicts).

Hudson.

Rainey, Samuel R., Pres., Bd. of Mgrs., House of Refuge for Women.

Ithaca.

Willcox, Walter Francis, Assoc. Prof. of Social Science and Statistics, Cornell Univ.

Newark.

Brownell, Mary Alice, M.D., Physician, State Custodial Asyl. for Feeble-minded Women.
*Winspear, C. W., Supt., State Custodial Asyl. for Feeble-minded Women.
*Winspear, Mrs. Gertrude E., Matron, N.Y. State Custodial Asyl. for Feeble-minded Women.

New York.

Andrews, Constant A., Treas., Char. Org. Soc., 72 Broadway.
Barnes, John S., Mgr., House of Refuge, 22 E. 48th St.
*Brace, C. Loring, Sec'y, Chdn.'s Aid Soc., 105 E. 22d St.
Brush, W. Franklin, Member, Char. Org. Soc., 16 E. 37th St.
Bryce, Miss Edith, Com. on Situations for Mothers with Infants, State Char. Aid Ass'n, 40 W. 54th St.
Butler, Miss Helen C., State Char. Aid Assoc.; Sec'y, Church Soc. for Employment and Relief of Poor Women, etc., 31 E. 69th St.
Butler, Miss Rosalie, Pres., N.Y. Co. Visiting Com., State Char. Aid Ass'n, 31 E. 69th St.
Chisolm, B. Ogden, 62 William St.
Cox, Chas. F., Member, Council and Exec. Com., Char. Org. Soc., 54 E. 67th St.
Cutting, W. Bayard, 32 Nassau St.
Cutting, R. Fulton, 32 Nassau St.
Darche, Louise, Supt., N.Y. City Training Sch.; Matron, City and Maternity Hosps., etc., Blackwell's Island.
De Forest, Robert W., Pres., Char. Org. Soc.; Pres., Provident Loan Soc., 62 William St.
De Peyster, Mrs. Beekman, Member, State Bd. of Char., 101 W. 81st St.
Dodge, Rev. D. Stuart, D.D., Pres., Christian Home for Intemperate Men, 11 Cliff St.
Dodge, Miss Grace H., First Director, Ass'n of Working-girls' Socs., 262 Madison Ave.
Dupuy, Moore, Supt. of Schs., Chdn.'s Aid Soc., 295 8th St.
Einstein, Mrs. H. B., Chairman, Com. on Philanthropy, National Council Jewish Women; Chairman, Employment Bureau, Emanuel E. L. Sisterhood, 121 E. 57th St.
Farrelly, Patrick, 39 Chambers St.
*Fisher, Miss Eliza, Sixth District Agt., Char. Org. Soc., 1473 Broadway.

New York, *Continued*—

*Folks, Homer, Sec'y, State Char. Aid Ass'n, 105 E. 22d St.
Ford, James B., Char. Org. Soc., 507 Fifth Ave.
*Giddings, Franklin H., Prof. Sociology, Columbia College, 150 W. 79th St.
Hadden, Alex. M., State Char. Aid Ass'n; Sec'y, Archdeaconry Com., Brotherhood of St. Andrew, 16 W. 51st St.
*Harvey, Mrs. Mary B., Agt., First District, Char. Org. Soc., 9 Chambers St.
*Henry, Miss Minerva D., Agt., Char. Org. Soc., 105 E. 22d St.
Herrman, Mrs. Esther, State Char. Aid Ass'n; Char. Org. Soc., 59 W. 56th St.
Higginson, James J., Char. Org. Soc., 16 E. 41st St.
*Hoguet, Rob't J., Treas., N.Y. Catholic Protectory, 415 Broome St
Hubbard, Thomas H., 16 W. 58th St.
Jackson, Sam'l Macauley, 14 E. 31st St.
*Jones, Miss Ella, Agt., Char. Org. Soc., 1 E. 125th St.
Kellogg, Chas. D., Gen. Sec'y, Char. Org. Soc., 105 E. 22d St.
Knowles, Jas. S., Warden, City Hosp., Blackwell's Island.
Kursheedt, M. A., 35 Warren St.
*Lowell, Mrs. C. R., Char. Org. Soc., 120 E. 30th St.
*McCutcheon, Mrs. Emma A., Agt., Char. Org. Soc., 105 E. 22d St.
Martin, Miss Sarah R., State Char. Aid Ass'n, 12 W. 18th St.
*Mason, Miss Mary R., Agt., State Char. Aid Ass'n, 105 E. 22d St.
*Maxwell, Miss Anna C., Supt., Training Sch. for Nurses, Presbyterian Hosp., 41 E. 70th St.
May, Mrs. Lewis, Chairman, Woman's Bd., Hebrew Technical Inst.; Treas., Elmann E. L. Sisterhood, Personal Service, 21 W. 56th St.
Minton, Miss Sophie E., Chairman, Com. on Chdn., State Char. Aid Ass'n, 204 W. 14th St.
Mulry, Thomas M., Sec'y, Superior Council of N.Y., Soc. of St. Vincent de Paul, 10 Perry St.
Ottendorfer, Oswald, 150 W. 59th St.
Parsons, John E., Pres., Cancer Hosp., 111 Broadway.
Peterson, Fred., M.D., Attending Physician, Hosp. Nervous Diseases, Blackwell's Island; Neurologist, R.I. Hosps., 60 W. 50th St.
Redmond, Miss Emily, 6 Washington Sq.
*Robinson, Geo. B., Sec'y, N.Y. Catholic Protectory, 415 Broome St.
Rosenau, Nathaniel S., Mgr., United Hebrew Char., 128 Second Ave.
*Round, W. M. F., Cor. Sec'y, Prison Ass'n of N.Y.; Director, Burnham Indus. Farm, 135 E. 15th St.
Schiff, Jacob H., Pres., Montefiore Home for Chronic Invalids; Vice-Pres., Baron de Hirsch Fund, etc., 27 Pine St.
Schuyler, Miss Louise Lee, Mgr., State Char. Aid Ass'n, 135 E. 21st St.
Sherman, W. Watts, 838 5th Ave.
Smith, Dr. Stephen, Member, State Bd. of Char., 574 Madison Ave.
Speyer, James, Director, Char. Org. Soc.; Treas., Provident Loan Soc., etc., 427 5th Ave.
Stewart, Wm. R., Pres., State Bd. of Char., 54 William St.
Tapley, Mrs. J. Fellowes, Char. Org. Soc., Workrooms for Unskill. Women, etc., 64 Clinton Pl.
Tolman, Wm. H., Gen. Sec'y, Ass'n for Improving the Condition of the Poor, 105 E. 22d St.
*Ufford, Walter S., Fellow in Sociology, 1895-96, Columbia Col.
*Weidemeyer, Mrs. Mary C., Reception Agt., Char. Org. Soc., 105 E. 22d St.
Worthen, Wm. E., 63 Bleeker St.

Ogdensburg.

Wise, Dr. P. M., Supt., St. Lawrence State Hosp.

Patchogue, L.I.

Mills, Jesse, Member, Bd. of Education.

Potsdam

Foster, Edward W., Member, State Bd. of Char.

Rochester.

*Briggs, Franklin H., Supt., State Indus. Sch.
*Briggs, Mrs. F. H., State Indus. Sch.
Stoddard, E. V., M.D., Vice-Pres., State Bd. of Char., 68 S. Washington St.

Syracuse.

*Carson, J. C., M.D., Med. Supt., Syracuse State Inst. for Feeble-minded Chdn.
McCarthy, Robert, Member, State Bd. of Char.
Mills, Chas. DeB., Gen. Sec'y, Soc. for the Prevention of Cruelty to Chdn., 4 Hendricks Blk.

Watertown.

*Walker, Mrs. U. C., Sec'y, Bureau of Char.; Agt., Soc. for Prevention of Cruelty to Chdn.
Washburn, J. R.

NORTH CAROLINA.

Asheville.

*Patton, Miss F. L., State Delegate, 95 Charlotte St.
*Patton, T. W., State Delegate, 95 Charlotte St.

OHIO.

Athens.

Super, Charles W., Pres., Ohio Univ.

Cincinnati.

*Ayres, Philip W., Gen. Sec'y, Assoc. Char., 304 Broadway.
Breed, W. J., Pres., Assoc. Char., 685 W. 8th St.
Crouse, Meigs V., Supt., Chdn.'s Home.
*Green, Gabriel Thomas, Visitor, Chdn.'s Home, 192 W. 9th St.
*Hubbard, Chas. M., Asst. Sec'y, Assoc. Char., 304 Broadway.
Neff, Wm. Howard, Member, Bd. State Char.
Thayer, Rev. Geo. A., Mt. Auburn.

Cleveland.

Barnett, James, Bethel Assoc. Char.
Graham, Thomas H., Bethel Assoc. Char., 204 Superior St.
Gries, Rabbi Moses J., Director, Humane Hebrew Relief Ass'n; Director, Bethel Assoc. Char., etc., 372 Kennard St.
Hammond, Geo. F., 166 Euclid Ave.
*Kitchen, H. W., M.D., Bethel Assoc. Char.
Mellen, L. F., Bethel Assoc. Char., 484 Prospect St.
Ranney, Henry C., Member, Bd. of State Char.
Raymond, Henry N., Supt., Bethel Assoc. Char., 309 Spring St.
Walton, J. W., Sec'y, Bethel Assoc. Char.
*Warden, Geo. R., Director, City Char. and Cor., 1221 Euclid Ave.
Weston, Stephen F., Assoc. Prof. Political and Social Science, Adelbert College.
Wolfenstein, Dr. S., Supt., Jewish Orph. Asyl.

Columbus.

*Byers, Jos. P., Sec'y, Bd. of State Char.
Henderson, W. T., Clerk, Bd. of State Char.
McKinley, Wm., Governor; Pres., *ex officio*, Bd. of State Char.
*Parrott, Chas., Bd. of State Char.

Cuyahoga Falls.

*Hough, Wayland S., M.D., Trustee, Cleveland St. Hosp.

Delaware.

*Stiles, A. W., Supt., Girls' Indus. Home.
*Stiles, Mrs. A. W., Matron, Girls' Indus. Home.
Thomson, S. W., 138 N. Sandusky St.
Williams, S. H.

Eaton.

Aydelott, H. C., Clerk, Infirmary Bd. of Directors of Preble Co.

Greenfield.

*Wilson, James L., M.D., Member, Bd. of State Char.

Ironton.

*Johnston, Miss Sarah F., Supt., Lawrence Co. Chdn.'s Home.

Mansfield.

*Brinkerhoff, Roeliff, Chairman, Bd. of State Char.; Pres., Nat'l Prison Ass'n.

Marietta.

*Follet, M. D., Member, Bd. of State Char.
*Hathaway, S. J., Pres. Ohio State Conf. of Char. and Cor., 1895; Trustee, Washington Co. Chdn.'s Home.

Millersburg.

Sharp, W. F.

Ripley.

*Williams, L. H., Pres., Bd. of Trustees, Girls' Indus. Home at Delaware.

Rockford.

Robinson, D. H., Pres., Mercer Co. Bd. of Visitors.

Sandusky.

Force, Gen. M. F., Commandant, Ohio Soldiers' and Sailors' Home.

South Newbury.

Waterton, Mrs. R. T., ex-Co. Visitor.

Toledo.

Young, James A., Pres., Ohio State Conf. of Char. and Cor., 309 Gardner Bldg.

West Union.

Ellison, T. W., Supt., Wilson Chdn.'s Home.

Wilmington.

Green, Rev. F. M., LL.D., Pres., Clinton Co. Bd. of Visitors.

Youngstown.

*Gessaman, Geo. D., Pres., Bd. of Trustees, Cleveland State Hosp., 1053 Orange St.

OREGON.

Portland.

Cole, Rev. Thomas L., D.D., Trinity Church Study.
*Holcomb, Miss M. B., State Delegate, Clifton, cor. 20th St.
Liebman, Maurice, Treas., Hebrew Benev. Assoc.; Director, City Bd. of Char., care of Buckingham & Hecht.
Walpole, W. R., Sec'y, City Bd. of Char., 213 4th St.

PENNSYLVANIA.

Allegheny.

Milligan, Rev. John L., Chaplain, Western Penitentiary.

Allentown.

Breinig, A. J., Supt., Christian Mission, Lehigh Co. Jail, 116 N. 5th St.

Carlisle.

Pratt, Capt. R. H., Supt., Indian Indus. Sch.

Glen Mills.

Miller, E. E., Family Officer, House of Refuge.
*Nibecker, F. H., Supt., House of Refuge.

Harrisburg.

Garner, Jane Kimmell, M.D., Physician, Female Dept. State Lun. Hosp.
Pollock, Martha H., M.D., Physician to Rescue Mission, Home for Girls, 322 N. 2d St.

Media.

Hawley, J. W., Mgr., Phila. House of Refuge, 20 W. Washington St.

Norristown.

Bennett, Alice, M.D., Supt., Dept. for Women, State Hosp. for Insane.

Philadelphia.

*Baily, Joshua L., Pres., Soc. for Org. Char., 13 Bank St.
Berkowitz, Rabbi Henry, 2129 Gratz St.
Biddle, Cadwalader, Sec'y, Bd. of Pub. Char., 1234 Chestnut St.
Bixby, W. H., U.S.A., P.O. Bdg.
*Cobb, Mrs. Mary E. R., Sec'y and Supt., Instruction, Foulke and Long Inst., 34th, cor. Locust St.
*Garrett, Philip C., Vice-Pres., Soc. for Org. Char., 308 Walnut St.
Harrison, Alfred C., Mgr., House of Refuge, Franklin Inst., etc., 400 Chestnut St.
Jenks, Mrs. Wm. F., 920 Clinton St.
*Lindsay, Sam'l M., Ph.D., Univ. of Pa.
*Nichols, W. I., Director, Soc. for Org. Char., 1616 Mt. Vernon St.
Patten, S. N., Prof., Univ. of Pa.
Rosengarten, J. G., Mgr., House of Refuge, 1532 Chestnut St.
Smith, Geo. H., Gen. Agt., Union Benev. Ass'n, 118 S. 7th St.
*Walk, James W., M.D., Gen. Sec'y, Soc. for Org. Char.; Delegate from Ass'n of Directors of the Poor of Pa., 1075 Chestnut St.
Whitaker, O. W., 4027 Walnut St.
Wolf, Louis, Sec'y, United Hebrew Char., 508 Minor St.

Pittsburg.

Jackson, John B., Sec'y Bd. of Trustees, Western Pa. Inst. for Instruction of Deaf and Dumb; Pres., Trustees, Church Home Ass'n, 123 Fourth Ave.
McGonnigle, Rob't D., Cor. Sec'y, Ass'n of Directors of the Poor of Pa.
Semple, Frank, Sec'y and Treas., Passavant Memorial Homes for care of Epileptics, etc., P.O. Box 1086.

Scranton.

Boies, H. W., Member, State Bd. of Pub. Char.
Israel, Rev. Rogers, Rector, St. Luke's Church.
Powell, Mrs. Ruth Q., Visitor, Bd. of Pub. Char. in the Co. of Lackawanna; Sec'y, Exec. Bd. Free Kindergarten, 410 Jefferson Ave.
Ripple, Ezra H.
Smith, Wm. T., 603 Jefferson Ave.

Wernersville.

Ewing, W. Brown, M.D., Supt. State Asyl. for Chron. Insane.

West Philadelphia.

Innes, Rev. Rob't F., Chaplain, Home of the Merciful Saviour for Crippled Chdn., 3819 Walnut St.

Williamsport.

Detwiler, B. H., Trustee, State Hosp. for Insane at Danville, 113 W. 3d St.

Womelsdorf.

*Yundt, Thomas M., Bethany Orph. Home.

York.

Small, Sam'l, Trustee, State Lun. Hosp. at Harrisburg.

RHODE ISLAND.

Bristol.

Spooner, Wm. H , Member, Bd. of State Char. and Cor.

Centreville.

Waterhouse, Geo. B., Member, Bd. of State Char. and Cor.

Chepachet.

Reed, Walter A., Member, Bd. of State Char. and Cor.

Howard.

*Butterfield, Elmer, Deputy Supt., Sockanosset Sch.
Eastman, James H , Supt., State Insts.
Keene, Geo. F., M.D., Physician to State Insts. at Cranston.
Murray, W. W , Supt., Sockanosset Sch. for Boys.
*Nutting, Rev. Jas. H., Chaplain, State's Prison.

Newport.

Betton, Miss Elizabeth L., Woman's Visiting Com. of Newport Hosp.; Member of Corporation of Home for Aged Colored Women at Providence, 158 Gibbs Ave.
Bliss, Mrs. Richard, Pres., Notre Dame Soc., 10 Whitfield Ct.
Coggeshall, Thomas, Chairman, Bd. of State Char. and Cor.
*Hunter, Anna F., Member, Bd. of Reference, Char. Org. Soc., 20 Kay St.

Peace Dale.

Hazard, Rowland.

Providence.

*Blake, Eli W., Jr., Gen. Mgr., Soc. Org. Char., 128 N. Main St.
*Cummings, Matthew J., Overseer of the Poor.
McCaw, Wm. J., M.D., Asst. Physician to State Insts. at Cranston, 222 Benefit St.
Olney, Frank F., Member, Bd. of State Char. and Cor.
Risk, R. B., Supt., State Home and Sch.
Spencer, Rev. Anna Garlin, Member, Bd. of Control, R.I. State Home Sch. for Dependent Chdn., 387 Broadway.
Wilson, Ellery H., Member, Bd. of State Char. and Cor.
*Wilson, Geo. Grafton, Prof., Brown Univ.
Woods, J. C. B., Member, Bd. of State Char. and Cor.

Valley Falls.

Wyman, Lillie B. Chace, Director, Assoc. Char. of Pawtucket; Member, Bd. R.I. Sch. for the Deaf.

Wakefield.

Littlefield, Phineas O., Member, Bd. of State Char. and Cor.

SOUTH CAROLINA.

Columbia.

*Babcock, J. W., M.D., Supt., State Asyl.
Joyner, Archdeacon Edmund N., *ex-officio* head of two hospitals, many schools, and Indus. Rescue Mission for Outcast Negro Boys, 1309 Sumter St.

SOUTH DAKOTA.

Sioux Falls.

Sherrard, W. D., State Supt., Chdn.'s Home Soc.

TENNESSEE.

Memphis.

*Cardwell, W. D., Sec'y, United Char., 478 Main St.
Lindsley, J. Berrien, M.D., Sec'y, State Bd. of Health, Nashville.
Menken, J. S., Vice-Pres., United Char., 371 Main St.
Smith, Mrs. Bolton, Chairman, Philanthropic Com., Nineteenth Century Club, 64 Alabama St.

Nashville.

Kilvington, W. C., Supt., Tenn. Indus. Sch.
Kilvington, Mrs. W. C., Tenn. Indus. Sch.

VERMONT.

Brattleboro.

Lawton, S. E., Supt., Brattleboro Retreat.

Rutland.

Tuttle, Egbert C.

St. Johnsbury.

Hazen, L. D., Director, Vt. State Prison and Vt. House of Correction.

Vergennes.

*Andrews, S. A., Supt., State Indus. Sch.; State Delegate.
Fancher, W. G., Asst. Supt., State Indus. Sch.

Westminster.

*Moore, Benj. F., Supt., Kurn Hattin Home.
*Moore, Mrs. C. W., Kurn Hattin Home.

West Westminster.
Goodhue, Homer, State Supervisor of Insane.

VIRGINIA.

Falls Church.
Gundry, Miss Mattie.

Glen Allen.
Sampson, Wm. C., Supt., Indus. Sch., Laurel Station.

Hampton.
*Frissell, H. B., Prin., Hampton Normal and Agricultural Inst.

Petersburg.
*Bradbury, John W., Pres., Methodist Female Orph. Asyl., 221 Sycamore St.
Drewry, Wm. F., M.D., First Asst. Physician, Central State Hosp.
*Gilliam, Rob't, Pres., Bd. Directors, Central State Hosp.

Richmond.
Bryan, Joseph.
*Lyons, James, Pres., Indus. Home; State Delegate, 1111 E. Main St.
Morton, O. S., Indus. Home, Nat'l Bank of Va.
Shepherd, Joseph H., 811 W. Main St.

WASHINGTON.

Chehalis.
Westendorf, Thos. P., Supt., State Ref. Sch.

Medicine Lake.
Semple, John M., M.D., Supt. Eastern Washington Hosp. for the Insane.

WISCONSIN.

Ashland.
*Snyder, Clarence, Member, State Bd. of Control.

Ellsworth.
Warner, Hans B., Pres., State Bd. of Control.

Ft. Howard.
Elmore, Andrew E., Ex-Pres., Nat'l Conf. Char. and Cor.

Kaukauna.
Bidwell, Geo. F.

Kenosha.
Cleary, J. L., M.D., ex-Member, State Bd. of Control.

Lake Geneva.
*Heg, James E., Vice-Pres., State Bd. of Control.

Madison.
Clarke, M. C., Treas., State Bd. of Control.
Comiy, D. S., Sec'y, State Bd. of Control.
Ely, Prof. Richard T., State Univ.
Goodwin, C. B., Asst. Sec'y, State Bd. of Control.
*Wright, A. O., Inspector of Char.; Vice-Pres., Soldiers' Home.

Menomonie.
*Stout, J. H., Founder, Stout Manual Training Sch.; State Delegate.

Milwaukee.
Abbot, Mrs. Fred'k, Pres., Wis. Training Sch. for Nurses, 765 Van Buren St.
Allen, Mrs. Wm. F., State Conf. of Char. and Cor., 228 Langdon St.
*Frellson, G., Supt., Assoc. Char., 416 Milwaukee St.
Frost, Edward W., Director, Assoc. Char., 159 New Insurance Bldg.
Graebner, W. H., ex-Member, State Bd. of Control.
Johnston, John, Pres., Milwaukee College, Regent Univ. of Wis.; Advisory Bd., Assoc. Char., 1130 Grand Ave.
*Klug, Wm. F., Supt. of Poor for Milwaukee Co., 499 River St.
*Merrill, Mrs. Willard, Mgr., Wis. Indus. Sch., 95 Prospect Ave.

Oshkosh.
Guenther, Richard, Member, State Bd. of Control.

Portage.
Jones, J. E., ex-Pres., State Bd. of Control.

Waupun.
Oliver, J. W., ex-Member, State Bd. of Control.

West Superior.
Gilbert, Henry W., Pres., Assoc. Char., 1700 21st St.

WYOMING.

Cheyenne.
Burdick, Chas. W., Member, State Bd. of Char. and Ref.
Hay, Henry G., Member, State Bd. of Char. and Ref.
Owen, William O., Member, State Bd. of Char. and Ref.
Reel, Miss Estelle, Sec'y, State Bd. of Char. and Ref.
Richards, William A., Pres., State Bd. of Char. and Ref.

CANADA (ONTARIO).

Chatham.
Woods, Judge R. S.

Hamilton.
Geoghegan, Rev. Thomas, Chdn.'s Aid Soc.
Niagara, Rt. Rev. Charles, 181 John St., N.

Toronto.
*Atkinson, C. J., Sec'y, Indus. Sch. Ass'n, 32 Church St.
Chamberlain, T. F., M.D, Inspector of Asylums, etc.; Inspector of Prisons.
Christie, R., Inspector of Asylums, etc.
*Kelso, J. J., State Supt., Neglected and Dependent Chdn.

CANADA (WEST MANITOBA).

Selkirk.
Young, David, M.D., Supt., Asyl. for Insane.

ENGLAND.

Bristol.
Whitwell, Mark, Pres., Hosp. for Sick Chdn. and Women.

SCOTLAND.

Musselburgh.
Bell, Geo., 12 Windsor Gardens.

ORGANIZATION OF CONFERENCE OF 1895.

President.

ROBERT TREAT PAINE, Boston, Mass.

Vice-Presidents.

DR. EDWARD HITCHCOCK, Amherst, Mass.
PROF. C. R. HENDERSON, Chicago, Ill.
DR. WALTER LINDLEY, Whittier, Cal.
HON. SETH LOW, New York, N.Y.
JUDGE R. R. CALDWELL, Nashville, Tenn.
DR. B. A. WHEELER, Denver, Col.

General Secretary.

H. H. HART, State Capitol, St. Paul, Minn.

Secretaries.

A. O. WRIGHT, Madison, Wis.
HOMER FOLKS, New York, N.Y.
ERNEST BICKNELL, Indianapolis, Ind.
C. E. FAULKNER, Atchison, Kan.
JOHN H. GABRIEL, Denver, Col.
DAVID I. GREEN, Hartford, Ct.

Treasurer.

JOHN M. GLENN, Baltimore, Md.

Official Reporter and Editor.

MRS. ISABEL C. BARROWS, 141 Franklin Street, Boston, Mass.

Executive Committee.

ROBERT TREAT PAINE, Boston, Mass.
W. P. LETCHWORTH, Buffalo, N.Y.
ALEXANDER JOHNSON, Fort Wayne, Ind.
JOHN GLENN, Baltimore, Md.
JAMES H. LEWIS, Springfield, Mass.
H. W. FARNAM, New Haven, Ct.
A. O. WRIGHT, Madison, Wis.
FRANCIS WAYLAND, New Haven, Ct.
J. S. APPEL, Denver, Col.
R. BRINKERHOFF, Mansfield, Ohio.
LUCIUS C. STORRS, Lansing, Mich.

The Local Reception Committee

Consisted of one hundred and twenty-five leading men and women of New Haven, with the following list of officers: —

President, FRANCIS WAYLAND.
Treasurer, B. R. ENGLISH.
Secretary, ROGER S. BALDWIN.
Chairman Finance Committee, JOSEPH PORTER.
Chairman Reception Committee, GEN. E. E. BRADLEY.
Chairman Press Committee, J. B. CARRINGTON.
Chairman Entertainment Committee, WM. H. MOSELEY.
Chairman Printing Committee, FRED. A. BETTS.
Chairman Nominating Committee, REV. D. M. JAMES.
Chairman Transportation Committee, HENRY W. FARNAM.

STANDING COMMITTEES

On Charity Organizations.

Jeffrey R. Brackett.....Baltimore, Md.
S. O. Preston.....New Haven, Conn.
Miss Frances Smith.....Boston, Mass.
Charles D. Kellogg.....New York, N.Y.
Ansley Wilcox.....Buffalo, N.Y.
A. O. Crozier.....Grand Rapids, Mich.
P. W. Ayres.....Cincinnati, Ohio

On Administration of Public and Private Relief.

C. G. Trusdell, D.D.....Chicago, Ill.
Rev. Thomas M. Finney.....St. Louis, Mo.
Mrs. Josephine S. Lowell.....New York, N.Y.
William Blake.....New York, N.Y.
Dr. James W. Walk.....Philadelphia, Pa.
Mrs. S. A. Champion.....Nashville, Tenn.

On Child-saving Work.

Charles W. Birtwell.....Boston, Mass.
A. N. Woodruff.....Coldwater, Mich.
William P. Letchworth.....Buffalo, N.Y.
L. P. Alden.....Terre Haute, Ind.
Francis Wayland.....New Haven, Conn.
H. W. Lewis.....Washington, D.C.
Miss E. C. Putnam.....Boston, Mass.
Rev. E. P. Savage.....St. Paul, Minn.
Rev. Anna Garlin Spencer.....Providence, R.I.
Homer Folks.....New York, N.Y.
Michael Heymann.....New Orleans, La.
Mrs. Glen Wood.....Chicago, Ill.
Talcott Williams.....Philadelphia, Pa.
Mrs. Sarah B. Cooper.....San Francisco, Cal.
M. V. Crouse.....Cincinnati, Ohio
G. A. Merrill.....Owatonna, Minn.
Charles L. Brace.....New York, N.Y.
J. J. Kelso.....Toronto, Ont.

On Juvenile Reformatories.

F. H. Nibecker.....Glen Mills, Pa.
J. H. Nutting.....Howard, R.I.
Mrs. W. G. Fairbanks.....Middletown, Conn.
P. Caldwell.....Louisville, Ky.
Walter Lindley.....Whittier, Cal.
Mrs. L. L. Brackett.....Lancaster, Mass.

On the Insane.

Dr. J. W. Babcock.....Columbia, S.C.
Dr. H. P. Stearns.....Hartford, Conn.
Dr. Edward Cowles.....Boston, Mass.
F. B. Sanborn.....Concord, Mass.
W. P. Letchworth.....Buffalo, N.Y.
Dr. A. B. Richardson.....Columbus, Ohio
Dr. Richard Dewey.....Chicago, Ill.
Dr. Charles W. Page.....Danvers, Mass.
Dr. E. N. Brush.....Towson, Md.

On State Boards of Charities.

Frederick H. Wines.....Springfield, Ill.
Clarence Snyder.....Racine, Wis.
John R. Elder.....Indianapolis, Ind.
H. M. Boies.....Scranton, Pa.
George B. Waterhouse.....R.I.
H. C. Whittlesey.....Conn.
Mrs. Anne B. Richardson.....Lowell, Mass.
M. A. Householder.....Columbus, Kan.
Dr. Stephen Smith.....New York, N.Y.

On the Feeble-minded.

Dr. George H. Knight.....Lakeville, Conn.
Dr. Walter Fernald.....Waltham, Mass.
Dr. J. C. Carson.....Syracuse, N.Y.
Dr. William B. Fish.....Chicago, Ill.
Prof. J. J. McCook.....Hartford, Conn.
William P. Letchworth.....Buffalo, N.Y.
H. H. Hart.....St. Paul, Minn.
Frederick Patterson.....N.J.
Mrs. M. C. Goodlet.....Nashville, Tenn.

On Immigration and Interstate Migration.

Dr. Charles S. Hoyt.....Albany, N.Y.
Charles F. Donnelly.....Boston, Mass.
Levi L. Barbour.....Detroit, Mich.
Hastings H. Hart.....St. Paul, Minn.
Rev. C. W. Wendte.....Oakland, Cal.

On Sociology in Institutions of Learning.

President Seth Low.....Columbia College
Prof. William F. Blackman.....Yale University
Prof. C. R. Henderson.....Chicago University
Prof. Graham Taylor, Chicago Theological Seminary
Prof. Francis Peabody.....Harvard University
John G. Brooks.....Harvard University
Rev. Arthur Fairbanks.....Yale University
Prof. F. H. Giddings.....Columbia College

On Training Schools for Nurses.

Miss Anna C. Maxwell.....New York City
Miss Linda Richards.....Brooklyn, N Y.
Miss Agnes Brennan.....New York City
Mrs. L. W. Quintard.....New Haven, Conn.
Miss Adelaide Nutting.....Baltimore, Md.
Miss Marion Smith.....Philadelphia, Pa.
Miss Maria B. Brown.....Boston, Mass.

On Homes for Soldiers and Sailors.

C. E. Faulkner.....Kansas
Gen. R. Brinkerhoff.....Ohio
Gen. W. B. Franklin.....Hartford, Conn.
A. O. Wright.....Wisconsin
R. H. Dudley.....Nashville, Tenn.
Major N. V. Randolph.....Richmond, Va.
L. C. Storrs.....Michigan
Major T. J. Charlton.....Indiana

On Reports from States.

Rev. H. H. Hart.....Minnesota
L. C. Storrs.....Michigan
Joseph Byers.....Ohio

State Corresponding Secretaries.

Alabama.....Miss Julia S. Tutwiler, Livingston
Alaska..Rev. Sheldon Jackson, Washington, D.C.
Arizona.....George W. Cheney, Tombstone
Arkansas.....
California...Mrs. Sarah B. Cooper, San Francisco
Colorado.....John H. Gabriel, Denver
Connecticut.....Prof. John J. McCook, Hartford
Delaware.....Mrs. A. D. Warner, Wilmington
District of Columbia.....Henry B. McFarland, Washington
Florida.....
Georgia.....
Idaho.....Dr. John W. Givens, Blackfoot
Illinois.....Mrs. Glen Wood, Chicago
Indiana.....E. P. Bicknell, Indianapolis
Indian Territory.....R. W. Hill, D.D., Muskogee
Iowa.....Mrs. F. A. Millard, Burlington
Kansas.....M. A. Householder, Columbus
Kentucky.....Julius Barkhouse, Louisville
Louisiana.....Michel Heymann, New Orleans
Maine.....Mrs. L. M. N. Stevens, Portland
Maryland.....Dr. C. C. Shippen, Baltimore
Massachusetts.....Col. Henry Stone, Boston
Michigan.....Dr. Samuel Post, Detroit
Minnesota.....C. P. Maginnis, Duluth
Mississippi.....Isadore Strauss, Jackson
Missouri..Miss Mary E. Perry, 18 Vandeventer Place, St. Louis
Montana.....Mrs. Laura E. Harvey, Helena
Nebraska.....Rev. A. W. Clark, 1307 Douglas Street, Omaha
Nevada.....Rev. John W. Hyslop, Carson
New Hampshire.....Miss C. R. Wendell, Dover
New Jersey.....David Warman, Trenton
New Mexico.....Rev. George G. Smith, Santa Fé
New York.....Homer Folks, New York
North Carolina....Rev. W. C. Wilson, Mocksville
North Dakota. Mrs. James Bartholomew, Bismarck
Ohio.....Joseph Byers, Columbus
Oklahoma.....
Oregon.....Thomas M. Strong, Portland
Pennsylvania.....Cadwalader Biddle, Philadelphia
Rhode Island....Rev. James H. Nutting, Howard
South Carolina.....J. W. Babcock, Charleston
South Dakota.....Z. Richey, Sioux Falls
Tennessee.....Rev. I. Lewinthall, Nashville
Texas...Benjamin E. McCulloch, 2004 White's Avenue, Austin
Utah...Mrs. Cornelia G. Paddock, Salt Lake City
Vermont.....Mrs. Julia C. R. Dorr, Rutland
Virginia.....R. O. Gilliam, Petersburg
Washington..Rev. John R. Thompson, Vancouver
West Virginia.....Rev. S. H. Day, Morgantown
Wisconsin....Gustav Frellson, 416 Milwaukee Street, Milwaukee
Wyoming.....S. T. Farwell, Cheyenne
Ontario.....Dr. A. M. Rosebrugh, 137 Church Street, Toronto
Manitoba and West Canada..Hon. John W. Sifton, Winnipeg.

OFFICERS AND MEMBERS OF STATE BOARDS.

COLORADO.

State Board of Charities and Corrections.

Albert W. McIntire, Governor, *ex officio*
Wm. F. Slocum, Jr., *President*
J. Warner Mills, *Vice-President*
J. S. Appel
B. A. Wheeler, M.D.
Mrs. Frances Belford
Ida Noyes Beaver, M.D.
John H. Gabriel, *Secretary*

CONNECTICUT.

State Board of Charities.

Dr. A. W. Tracy, *President*.....Meriden
Miss Mary Hall.....Hartford
Miss Rebekah G. Bacon.....New Haven
Mr. H. C. Whittlesey.....Middletown
Mr. George F. Spencer, *Auditor*.....Deep River
Mr. Charles P. Kellogg, *Secretary*.....Waterbury

ILLINOIS.

Board of State Commissioners of Public Charities.

Boerne Bettman, M.D.....Chicago
George W. Curtiss.....Stockton
Julia C. Lathrop.....Rockford
James McNabb.....Carrollton
D. W. Andrews.....Centralia
George F. Miner, *Secretary*.....Springfield

INDIANA.

Board of State Charities.

Claude Matthews, Governor, *President*
John R. Elder
Timothy Nicholson
Demarchus C. Brown
Aquilla Jones
Margaret F. Peelle
Mary A. Spink
Ernest Bicknell, *Secretary*

MASSACHUSETTS.

State Board of Lunacy and Charity.

George W. Johnson, *Chairman*.....Brookfield
Henrietta G. Codman, *Vice-Chairman*.....Brookline
Charles F. Donnelly.....Boston
Edward Hitchcock, M.D.....Amherst.
John L. Hildreth, M.D.....Cambridge
Anne B. Richardson.....Lowell
Laban Pratt.....Boston
Charles J. Curran, M.D.....North Adams
Leonine Lincoln.....Fall River

Stephen C. Wrightington, Supt. Indoor Poor.....
Henry Stone, Supt. Outdoor Poor.....
Charles E. Woodbury, M.D, Inspect. Institutions
John D. Wells, *Clerk and Auditor of Board*.....

MICHIGAN.

Board of Corrections and Charities.

The Governor, *ex officio*
Rt. Rev. Geo. D. Gillespie, *Chairman*.....Grand Rapids
L. C. Storrs, *Secretary*.
Herbert A. Forrest.....Saginaw, E.S.
Edwd. W. Jenks, M.D.....Detroit
James M. Shepard.....Cassopolis

MINNESOTA.

State Board of Corrections and Charities.

David M. Clough, Governor, *ex-officio President*
C. Amundson.....St. Peter
E. S. Durment.....St. Paul
W. W. Folwell.....Minneapolis
C. P. Maginnis.....Duluth
J. H. Rich.....Redwing
J. B. Wakefield.....Blue Earth City
H. H. Hart, *Secretary*.....St. Paul

NEBRASKA.

Board of Public Lands and Buildings.

H. C. Russell, Commissioner of Public Lands and Buildings.....
J. A. Piper, Secretary of State, *Chairman*.....
A. S. Churchill, Attorney-General, *Secretary*.....
J. S. Bartley, State Treasurer

NEW HAMPSHIRE.

State Board of Charities and Corrections.

John M. Mitchell, *President*.....Concord
Julia R. Carpenter, *Secretary*.....Concord
Oliver J. M. Gilman.....Alton
Melusina H. Varick.....Manchester
George G. Davis .....Marlboro

NEW JERSEY.

State Board of Health.

MEMBERS *EX OFFICIO.*

Hon. Henry C. Kelsey, Secretary of State.....
Hon. John P. Stockton, Attorney-General.....
Prof. John C. Smock, Ph.D., State Geologist

Prof. Cyrus F. Brackett, M.D., LL.D., *President*, Princeton
Henry Mitchell, *Secretary*.....
Franklyn Gauntt, M.D.....Burlington
Prof. A. R. Leeds, Ph. D.....Hoboken
Cornelius Shepherd, M.D.....Trenton
John A. Githens.....Asbury Park
Edward R. O'Reilly, M.D.....Elizabeth
Laban Dennis, M.D.....Newark

NEW YORK.

MEMBERS APPOINTED BY THE GOVERNOR AND SENATE.

First Judicial District.....William R. Stewart .....54 William Street, New York
New York County.....Stephen Smith.....574 Madison Avenue, New York
(Under Chapter 571, Laws of 1873.)
New York County.....Mrs. Beekman de Peyster.....101 West Eighty-first Street, New York
(Under Chapter 571, Laws of 1873.)
Second Judicial District.... Edward H. Litchfield .....2 Montague Terrace, Brooklyn
Kings County .....Tunis G. Bergen ....127 Pierrepoint Street, Brooklyn
(Under Chapter 571, Laws of 1873.)
Third Judicial District.....Selden E. Marvin.....344 State Street, Albany
Fourth Judicial District....Edward W. Foster .....Potsdam, St. Lawrence County
Fifth Judicial District.....Robert McCarthy .....Syracuse
Sixth Judicial District .....Peter Walrath.....Chittenango, Madison County
Seventh Judicial District ...E. V. Stoddard.....62 State Street, Rochester
Eighth Judicial District....William P. Letchworth.....Buffalo

OFFICERS.

William R. Stewart, *President*.....
Enoch Vine Stoddard, *Vice-President*.....
Charles S. Hoyt, Supt. State and Alien Poor.....
James O. Fanning, Inspector of Charities.....
Edmund Lyon, *Secretary*

NORTH CAROLINA.

Board of Public Charities.

Dr. Charles Duffy, *Chairman*.....Newbern
Lawrence J. Haughton, Esq.....Pittsboro
Wesley M. Jones, Esq.....Raleigh
Wm. A. Blair.....Winston
S. W. Reid, Esq.....Steel Creek
C. B. Denson, *Secretary*.....Raleigh

OHIO.

Board of State Charities.

Asa S. Bushnell (after Jan. 6, 1896), Governor, *President ex officio*
Roeliff Brinkerhoff ..... Mansfield
William Howard Neff ..... Cincinnati
James L. Wilson ..... Greenfield
Charles Parrott ..... Columbus
M. D. Follett ..... Marietta
Henry C. Ranney ..... Cleveland
Joseph P. Byers, *Clerk*, Columbus

PENNSYLVANIA.

Board of Public Charities.

Mahlon, H. Dickinson, *President* .....
Charles Miller .....
J. W. C. O'Neal .....
Henry M. Boies .....
Geo. W. Starr .....
Geo. I. McLeod .....
Wm. B. Lamberton .....
Francis J. Torrance .....
Wm. B. Gill .....
Geo. W. Ryon .....
Cadwalader Biddle, *General Agent and Secretary*

RHODE ISLAND.

Board of State Charities and Corrections.

J. C. B. Woods, *Chairman* ..... Providence
Charles H. Peckham, *Secretary* ..... Providence
Rev. George W. Cutter ..... Newport
Walter A. Read ..... Chepachet
Frank F. Olney .. Mayor of the City of Providence
George B. Waterhouse ..... Centreville
Phineas O. Littlefield ..... Wakefield
Ellery H. Wilson ..... Providence
George Lewis Smith ..... Nayatt

SOUTH DAKOTA.

Board of Charities and Corrections.

W. J. Sibbison, President ..... Dell Rapids
L. B. Laughlin ..... Bridgewater
C. M. Howe ..... Mellette
R. W. Haire ..... Aberdeen
Z. Richey, Secretary ..... Yankton

TENNESSEE.

Board of State Charities.

The legislature of Tennessee has passed an act creating a State Board of Charities, but no report of appointments has been received.

WISCONSIN.

State Board of Control.

Hans B. Warner, *President* ..... Ellsworth
James E. Heg, *Vice-President* ..... Lake Geneva
Richard Guenther ..... Oshkosh
Clarence Snyder ..... Ashland
Lemuel Ellsworth ..... Milwaukee
D. S. Comly, *Secretary* ..... Madison

WYOMING.

Board of Charities and Reform.

W. A. Richards, Governor, *President* .....
Estelle Reel, State Superintendent, *Secretary* .....
Chas. W. Burdick, Secretary of State, ...
William O. Owen, State Auditor .....
Henry G. Hay, State Treasurer.

INDEX OF SPEAKERS AND WRITERS.

Alden, Percy, 454.
Appel, J. S., 443, 447.
Ayres, Philip W., 96.

Babcock, J. W., M.D., 164, 381, 472, 473, 474.
Baldwin, Henry, 472.
Beedy, Helen B. Coffin, 351, 467.
Bicknell, Ernest, 343, 451, 465.
Blackman, W. F., 472, 489.
Bliss, Mrs. A. M., 458.
Brackett, J. R., 80.
Brewer, William H., 143, 467.
Brinkerhoff, R., 317, 443, 458, 464.
Brooks, John C., 54.
Brown, Frank L., 470.
Byers, Joseph P., 376.

Charlton, T. J., 312, 317.
Clark, A. W., 362.
Clark, Mary A. J., 330.
Cooper, Sarah B., 324.
Crozier, A. O., 442, 460.

Dana, M. Mc.G., 230, 461.
Darche, Louise, 267.
De Graffenried, Clare, 101.
Denson, C. B., 375.
Dudley, R H., 317.
Dunlap, Mary J., 465, 466.
Dwight, President, 440.

Edwards, W. C., 470.
Elder, John R., 37.

Fairbanks, M. G., 238.
Faulkner, C. E., 317, 446, 447, 457, 459, 469.
Felkel, H. L., 340.
Finney, Thomas M., 361.
Fish, W. B., 460.
Fisher, Irving, 490.
Folks, Homer, 369, 468.
Follett, M.D., 462, 499.
Fort, Samuel J., 155.
Franklin, W. B., 317.
Frellson, Gustav, 391.

Gabriel, John H. 326.
Garrett, Philip C., 449, 469.
Giddings. Franklin H., 110.
Gillian, Robert, 385.
Givens, John N., 341.
Gould, E. R. L., 134, 473, 511.

Hadley, Arthur T., 117.
Hamblin, J. B., 322.
Hart, H. H., 248, 450, 457, 463.
Heg, James E., 447, 466.
Henderson, C. R., 72.
Heymann, Michel, 349.
Hill, Octavia, 497.
Hill, R. W., 346.
Hollister, Harvey J., 487.
Householder, M. A., 37.
Howey, Laura E., 361.
Hoyt, Charles S., 245, 489.

Jackson, James F., 468, 492.
Jackson, Sheldon, 321.
Johnson, Alexander, 445, 466, 471, 523.

Kimber, Diana C., 273.
Knight, George H., M.D., 150, 463.

Lathrop, Julia C., 450, 456, 464.
Leavitt, T. H., 364.
Lee, Joseph, 506.
Lewis, H. W., 338.
Lincoln, Mrs. Alice N., 448, 491, 520.
Loch, C. S., 497.
Lowell, Mrs. C. R., 44.
Ludden, L. P., 469, 479.
Lyons, Jas., 500.

Macdonald, Arthur, 474.
Macfarland, H. B. F., 333.
McLane, Kate M., 352.
Maginnis, C. P., 357.
Maddock, G. C., 448, 466.
M'Cook, J. J., 288, 328.
Millard, Mrs. F. A., 347.
Moore, Marion I., 508.
Morrill, E. W., 469.
Munger, T. T., 16.

Nibecker, F. H., 216.
Nutting, J. H., 445.

Paine, Robert Treat, 1, 478, 491, 492, 499. 502, 526.
Palmer, Sophia F., 259.
Pangborn, Z. K., 465.
Perry, Mary E., 359.
Post, James A., 355.
Powers, H. H., 122.
Prescott, W. H., M.D., 285.

Quintard, L. W., 275.

Randolph, N. V., 317, 389.
Richards, Charles R., 195.
Richards, Linda, 256.
Richardson, Mrs. Anne B., 37, 452.
Richmond, Mary E., 463, 514.
Ring, Thomas F., 61.
Robinson, Maria S., 269.
Rolph, W. T., 93.
Rosebrugh, A. M., 393.
Rowe, G H. M., M.D., 276.

Sanborn, F. B., 186, 366, 474, 484, 486, 488.
Savage, E. P., 208, 472.
Smith, A. J., 471.
Smith, Frances A., 87.
Smith, S. G., 444, 460.
Smith, Stephen, M.D., 37.

Snyder, Clarence, 37, 445, 452, 500.
Stevens, L. M. N., 350.
Storrs, L. C., 317.
Swan, G. W., 519.

Tracey, John, 335.
Trusdell, C. G., 66.
Tutwiler, Julia S., 319.

Wald, Lillian D., 264.
Walk, J. W., 451, 527.
Walker, Mrs. C. M., 446, 450.
Warman, David, 367.
Waterhouse, G. B., 37.
Waterlow, Sydney H., 498.
Wayland, Francis, 501, 519.
Wendell, C. R., 365.
Wheeler, Walter A., 204.
Whittlesey, H. C., 37.
Williamson, Mrs. E. E., 447.
Wines, F. H., 37, 442, 467, 471, 477, 484, 500.
Winspear, C. W., 160.
Wood, Mrs. Glen, 341.
Wright, A. O., 303, 317, 461, 485, 503.

INDEX OF SUBJECTS.

Absenteeism, 104.
Address of President, 1.
Alabama, care of insane in, 180.
Alabama, report from, 319.
Alaska, report from, 321.
Almshouse hospitals, trained nurses in, 276.
Almshouses, removal of children from, 365.
American Charities, 463.
"American Charities" (A. G. Warner), 56.
American Economic Association, on teaching economics in public schools, 129.
Antecedents of criminals, 140.
Anthropometric measurements, 474.
Apprenticeship system, 197.
Arizona, report from, 322.
Arkansas, care of insane in, 184.
Arkansas, report from, 323.
Army nurses, home for, 458.

Baths, public, in Glasgow, 236.
Beauty of service, the, 520.
Belgian schools, 201.
Birmingham Infirmary, 491.
Blackwell's Island hospitals, 267.
Boards of Control, 37, 447.
British Society for organizing Charity, 81.
Burial expenses, 62.

California, report from, 324.
Carnegie Company, 8.
Channing Home for Women, 521.
Charitable societies in New Haven, 57.
Charity and reformatory work, their relation to universities, 143.
Charity, empire of, 1.
Charity organization, 80, 101, 506.
Charity organization and its work, 93.
Charity organization movement, the, its tendency and duty, 80.
Charity Organization Society of New York, 48.
Chicago, amount spent in public relief, 67.
Chicago Conference, 3.
Chicago, public and private relief in, 66.
Chicago, relief and aid society of, 68.
Children in hospitals, 275.
Children's Guardians, Board of, 338.
Children's Playground Association, 353.
Children's Protective Act of Ontario, 396.
Child-saving work, 195.
Circular on soldiers' homes, 311.
Civil service in cities, 342.
Clean streets, 106.
Colony plan for imbeciles, 466.
Colorado, report from, 326.
Colored nurses, 337.
Colored insane, the, 164.
Colored insane, number of in U.S., 165.
Committees: on Resolutions, 452; on Organization, 457; on Time and Place, 458.
Cooking classes, 107.
Confederate Soldiers' Homes, 308.
Connecticut House Bill, No. 681, 467.
Connecticut, report from, 328.
Continued care of families, 87.
Convict-made goods, 345.
Country Week, 59.
County Homes in Connecticut, 329.
County paupers and houses of industry, 365,
Craig Colony for Epileptics, 371.
Criminal statistics, 136.
Criminals, antecedents of, 140.
Custodial Asylum, New York, 160.
Custodial care of feeble-minded women, 161.

"Degeneration" (Max Nordau), 111, 187.
Delaware, care of insane in, 185.
Delaware, report from, 330.
Denison, Edward, on people flocking to towns, 46.
Denison House, 9.
Desertion by parents, 208.
Development of ethical forces, 16.
Directory of Chicago Charities, 67.
Discharged prisoners, aid for, 12.
Discussions: on State Boards, 442; on soldiers' homes, 458; on the care of feeble-minded, 460; on insanity, 472; on immigration, 487.
District nursing in London, 273.
District of Columbia, report from, 333, 335, 338.
Dockers in London, 454.

École Diderot, Paris, 202.
Economic policy, science and sentiment in, 117.

Emergency relief, 96.
Empire of charity, 1.
Epileptics, 154.
Epileptics, Hospital for, in Gallipolis, 377.
Ethical forces, development of, 16.
Evils growing out of extortionate usury, 506.
Exappropriation, 512.

Fachschulen, 201.
Families, continued care of, 87.
Feeble-minded, the, 150.
Feeble-minded women, training and protection of, 160.
Ferris Industrial School for Boys, 330, 331.
Floating hospital, a, 269.
Florence Mission, the, 367.
Florida, care of insane in, 185.
Florida, report from, 340.
Food supply for insane, 341.
Forms of insanity, 168.
Frankfort Congress, resolution of, 77.
Freedman's Bureau, 170.
Freedmen's Hospital, 336.
Friendly visiting, 82, 524.
Friendly visitors, failures of, 525; success of, 526.
Funds for charity purposes, 59.

Georgia, care of insane in, 180.
Georgia, report from, 340.
German "Inner Mission," the, 72.
Gilder, R. W., on kindergartens, 232.
Giles, H. H., resolutions with reference to, 485.
Gewerbeschulen, 201.

"Habitual Criminality" (Dr. Olive Ferona), 232.
Help given by poor to the poor, 522.
Hereditary criminality, statistical study of, 134.
Hinckley fire, the, 492.
Home for army nurses, 458.
Homes for soldiers and sailors, 310.
Homes, influence of, 235.
Housekeeping classes, 107.
Hull House, 342.

Idaho, report from, 341.
Ideal public charity, 28.
Idiotic hand, training of, 155.
Illegitimacy among imbeciles, 154.
Illinois, by-laws concerning Aid Society, 68.
Illinois, report from, 341.
Imbeciles, number of, in the United States, 462.
Immigration, 245.
Immigration and interstate migration, 245.
Improved dwellings, 511.
Improved tenements, 520.
Improvement of neighborhoods, 101.
Increase of insanity, 186, 194.
Indian Territory, 346.
Indiana, report from, 343.
Industrial schools, 201.
Inebriates, home for, 336.
Influence of children after institution life, 216.
"Inner Mission," the, 72; lessons from, 77.
Insane, colored, 164.
Insane, family care of, 188; monster asylums for, 188; death-rate of, 189.
Insane, the, 164.
Insanity, causation of, 166.
Insanity, increase of, 186.
Insanity in Negro, 164.
Insanity, limit of, 190.
Institutions of learning, sociology in, 110.
International Congress of Charities, 7.
Interstate migration, 245, 248.
Invitations to Kansas, 469.
Iowa, report from, 347.

Juvenile criminals, antecedents of, 233.
Juvenile criminals, parental condition of, 233.
Juvenile delinquency, lessening of, 234.
Juvenile Offenders Bill, 352.
Juvenile reformation, 216.

Kansas, report from, 348.
Kentucky, care of insane in, 171.
Kentucky, report from, 349.
Kindergarten, influence of, 232.
Kindergarten methods for feeble-minded, 157.
Kindergartens for children's hospitals, 275.

"Labor and Life of the People" (Charles Booth), 111.
"*Leitfaden*" (Pastor Schäfer), 74.
Letters: from E. W. Morrill, 469; from T. L. Brown, 470; from W. C. Edwards, 470; from A. J. Smith, 471; from C. S. Loch, 495; from Octavia Hill, 497; from S. H. Waterlow, 498.
Limit of speeches, 443.
Liquor saloons, number of, 519.
Loan Associations, 5.
Loan Bureau, 7.
Loan Closets, 58.
Loaning of money, 265.
Loans to the poor, 507.
London, relief by work in, 10.
Louisiana, care of insane in, 184.
Louisiana, report from, 349.
Louisville Charity Organization Society, 93.

Maine, report from, 350.
Married vagabonds, 514.
Maryland, care of insane in, 174.
Maryland, report from, 352.
Massachusetts, outdoor public relief in, 61.
Massachusetts, report from, 354.
Massage as occupation for the blind, 360.
Medical charity, 285.
Michigan, report from, 355.
Migration between States, 248.
Minnesota, report from, 357.
Minutes and Discussions, 440.
Mississippi, care of insane in, 175.
Mississippi, report from, 358.
Missouri, care of insane in, 182.
Missouri, report from, 359, 361.
Mont-de-Piété system, 507.
Montana, report from, 361.
Monthly allowance per family of outdoor relief, 67.
Moral influence of trained nurses, 256.
Mother Bikerdike, 459.

Nebraska, relief for drought in, 479.
Nebraska, report from, 362, 364.
Negro, insanity in, 164.
Negroes, United States home for, 337.
Neighborhoods, permanent improvement of, 101.
Nevada, report from, 365.
New Hampshire, report from, 365, 366.
New Haven, aid for discharged prisoners, 12.
New Haven, charitable societies in, 57.
New Jersey, report from, 367.
New Mexico, report from, 369.
New York, density of population of, 236.
New York, report from, 369.
New York Trade School, 198.
Night lodging-houses, 59.
North Carolina, care of insane in, 183.
North Carolina, report from, 375.
North Dakota, report from, 376.
Norwich method, 516.
Nurses' Club, 261.
Nurses in settlement work, 264.
Nurses, training schools for, 256.
Nursing in almshouses, cost of, 282.

Ohio, care of insane in, 178.
Ohio, report from, 376.
Oklahoma, report from, 378.
Ontario, report from, 393.
Oregon, report from, 378.
Outdoor public relief in Massachusetts, 61.
Outdoor relief in Indiana, 345.
Outdoor relief, monthly allowance per family, 67.

Paid agents, 528.
Paine, Mr. Robert Treat, remarks by, 526.
Paroling of convicts, 355.
Pauper children in England, 455.
Pauper lunatics, 189.
Pauper mothers of imbeciles, 465.
Paupers, migration of, 251.
Paupers, shipment of, 252.
Pawnbrokers, 506.
Pawnbrokers' Association, 59.
Peabody, F. G., on method and motive in charity, 56.
Penitentiary schools, 320.
Pennsylvania, report from, 379.
Penny provident fund, 59.
Pensions and soldiers' homes, 303.
Permanent improvement of neighborhoods, 101.
Personal service on the part of directors, 523.
Philanthropy which pays dividends, 507.
Playgrounds, 266.
Pool-selling, prohibition of, 328.
Poor-law infirmary, 281.
Poverty and its relief, 44.
"Present and Future of the Negro" (James Bryce), 186.
President's address, 1.
Prison system of Delaware, 331.
Probation for good conduct, act to establish, in Maryland, 353.
Problems of an institution, 204.
Protection and training of feeble-minded women, 160.
Provident Loan Society, 7, 375.
Provident Loan Society, New York, 507.
Provident Medical Associations, 285.
Public and private relief, 44.
Public and private relief in Chicago, 66.
Public Charities, State Boards of, 28.
Public relief in Chicago, 67.
Public sanitation, 149.
Pullman strike, 8.

Queen Victoria's jubilee institute for nurses, 273.
Queen's nurses, 274.

Rag-carpet industry, 59.
Railway strike, 8.
Reformed school for colored girls, 338.
Relief by work, 10, 99.
Relief funds, 58.
Relief in small cities, 54.
Relief in work, 338.
Relief work, 44, 265.
Relief work in emergencies, 96.
Relief work in Nebraska, 479.
Remedial work for youth, 230.
Reports from States, 318.
Reports: of Secretary, 440; of Committee on Time and Place, 468; of Committee on Organization, 477.
Resolution as to abolishing Superintendent Charities for District of Columbia, 334.
Resolutions: on feeble-minded, 466; on representation from other republics, 472; on duties of ex-committees, 484; on Hon. G. S. Robinson, 484; on H. H. Giles, 485; on desertion of children, 491; of thanks, 499.
Rhode Island, report from, 381.
Robinson, George S., resolutions with reference to, 484.

Sanitary inspection, 508.
Sanitary oversight of dwellings, 508.
School of Sociology, Hartford, 329.
Science and sentiment in economic policy, 117.
Scotch Commission in Lunacy, reports of, 187.
Secretary's report, 440.
Section meetings, 506.
Sermon, 16.
Service, beauty of, 520.
Sessions: first, 440; second, 442; third, 452; fourth, 453; fifth, 453; sixth, 456; seventh, 459; eighth, 460; ninth, 471; tenth, 471; eleventh, 477; twelfth, 484; last, 491.
Sheffield Board of Guardians, 455.
Shoe strike, 8.
Sick poor, care of, at home, 259.
Slum life, how to reach, 513.
Slum property, premium upon, 512.
Small cities, relief in, 54.
"Social classes": is it a scientific category? 110.
"Social Evolution" (Kidd), 9, 26.
Social science, 2.
Sociological study, 110.
Sociology in institutions of learning, 110.
Sociology in schools and colleges, 122.
Soldiers' homes, 303.
Soldiers' homes, statistical tables of, 314.
South Carolina Asylum for Negroes, 167.
South Carolina, care of insane in, 173.
South Carolina, report from, 381.
South Dakota, report from, 382.
State Boards, discussion on, 442.
State Boards, mission of, 445.
State institutions, tables relating to, 397.
State Primary School, Massachusetts, 355.
State Boards of Public Charities, 28.
State institutions, mismanagement in, 40.
State provision for colored insane, 169.
State, the, obligations of, to juveniles, 238.
States, reports from, 318.
Statistical study of hereditary criminality, 154.
Statistics of criminals, 136.
St. John's Guild, work of, for sick children, 269.
Stock-breeding, 147.

Tables relating to State institutions, 397.
Tennessee, report from, 382.
Tennessee, care of insane in, 177.
Tewksbury Almshouse, trained nursing in, 280.
Tewksbury Almshouse, training school in, 490.
Texas, care of insane in, 181.
Texas, report from, 383.
Text-books for study of economics, 129.
Towel supply, 59.
Trade schools, 195.
Trade schools in Germany and Austria, 201.
Train jumping, 298.
Trained nurse, the, 259.
Trained nurses in almshouse hospitals, 276.
Trained nurses, moral influence of, 256.
Training of an idiotic hand, 145.
Training school for nurses, 256.
Training schools for nurses for insane, 354.
Tramp problem, the, 288.
Tramps, 514.
Tramps and casuals in public lodging-houses, 302.
Tramps, employment of, 299.
Travelling paupers, 250.
Trust funds for relief work, 64.
Tuke, D. Hack, allusion to, 487.

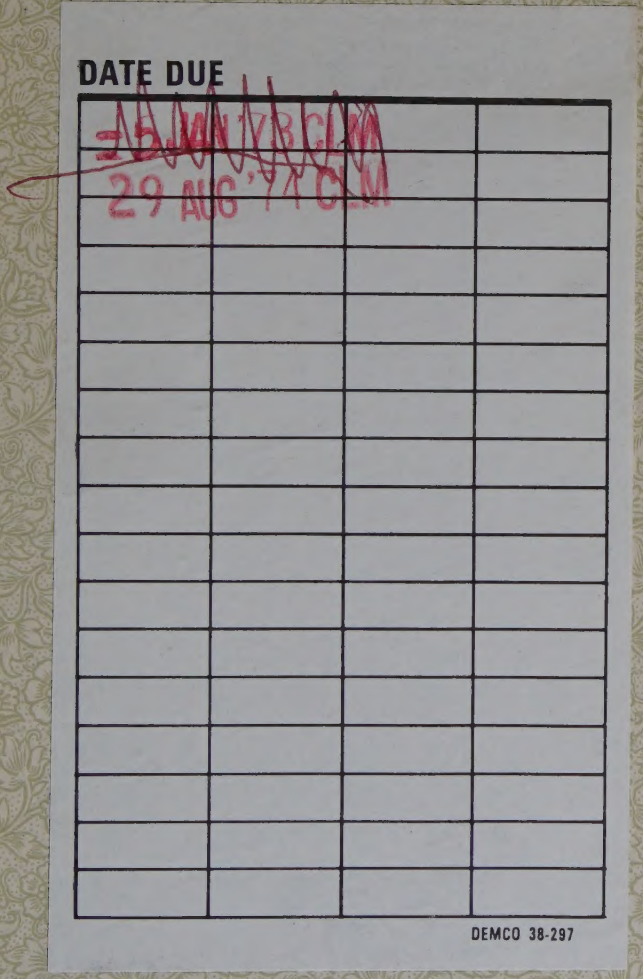
Union veterans, home for, 337.
United Hebrew charities, 45.
Universities and reformatory work, 143.

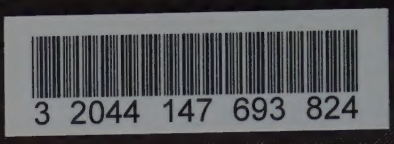
University settlement, 44.
Utah, report from, 384.

Vagabonds, and how to treat them, 514.
Vermont, report from, 384.
Veterans and wives, homes for, 372.
Virginia, care of insane in, 179.
Virginia, report from, 385.
Visiting Nurses' Association, 262.

Wage of working girls, 11.
Washington, D.C., Hospital for Insane, 176.
Washington, report from, 390.
Wayfarers' Lodge, 94.
Wayland, Judge, remarks by, 519.
Wells Memorial Institute, 287.
West Virginia, care of insane in, 182.
West Virginia, report from, 390.
Williamson free school of mechanical trades, 199.
Wisconsin, report from, 391.
Wisconsin Veterans' Home, 305.
Wood-yards, 70.
Work in relief, 44.
Working-girls, wage of, 11.
Workingmen's Loan Association, 5.
Wyoming, report from, 393.

3 gal
154




3 2044 147 693 824